The Nation.

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The Week.

WHILE Senators Harris and Blackburn are proclaiming their subserviency to silver monometallism, a movement is on foot in the South for a sound-money convention to be held at Memphis on the 23d of May. The first steps for this meeting were taken by the commercial organizations of Memphis—the Cotton Exchange, Merchants' and Lumber Exchanges, the Manufacturers' Association, and the Young Men's Business League—which held a joint meeting and adopted a call for "a convention to be composed of delegates to be chosen by the people of the Southern States who believe in the necessity of a sound and stable currency and better banking facilities, in order to fully restore and in the future to maintain prosperity among the people." The meeting was addressed by the Hon. Josiah Patterson of the Memphis district, whose services in the cause of sound currency have been recognized and welcomed throughout the country and rewarded by a reëlection to Congress. Many letters have been received from Southern cities and towns promising hearty coöperation; so there is no doubt of the success of the convention. The movement cannot be too warmly commended. The idea has been widely promulgated that the interests of the West and South as regards the currency are different from those of the East. This notion has received vulgar pictorial illustration in a widely circulated pamphlet, representing the West as a Sioux Indian, with war-paint and feathers, and a Southern planter with their arms around each other's necks in league against the East and drinking champagne together. Such attempts to breed sectional strife will no doubt receive an effectual quietus at the hands of the Memphis convention. There is no more reason why the South and the West, or even the Ogalalla Sioux, should have an inferior currency than there is for their having flint-lock muskets, worthless gunpowder, or bad medicine-men. Senators Harris and Blackburn are decidedly "bad medicine."

At last we have got what we have long and in vain asked the Jingoes to give us, a definition of "Americanism." It is furnished by the speech of Ambassador Eustis made in London on Friday, and the correspondence of Secretary Gresham with Minister Terrell, both published in Saturday morning's papers. That Eustis's speech was "ringing with Americanism" is kindly guaranteed to us by the *Tribune*, and Terrell's remarks to the Turkish minister of foreign affairs are of the same metal. From the two men we learn that "intense Americanism" is made up of ignorance, impudence, and lies in about equal parts. Mr. Eustis declared that "we can truthfully say that no weaker nation ever suffered from aggression on the part of the United States." Is not our minister to France old enough to remember the Mexican war? That is the war which Gen. Grant called repeatedly a "war of conquest," and said of it that "even if the annexation [of Texas] itself could be justified, the manner in which the subsequent war was forced upon Mexico cannot." We say nothing about the bullying attack upon Chili, the bombardment of Greytown, the joint resolution of Congress to collect a claim from Venezuela by force. But Terrell was a much more ringing American than Eustis. He stood boldly up in the palace at Constantinople and demanded access to the Sultan in order to tell him that he must "save the country from the devil," or it would be "bad for Turkey." He also took occasion to enlighten the Turk about the English Constitution, and reminded him that "the Queen, and not the Constitution, is sovereign" in England. This heroic Texan, whose education at the University of Missouri was "supplemented," as it evidently needed to be, "by a special course at Heidelberg," is clearly the spiritual descendant of General Choke, who insisted that the Queen *did* reside in the Tower of London, as "nat'rally the place for holding a luxurious and thoughtless court."

Gen. Edward McGrady of Charleston, a leading lawyer and old Confederate soldier, has openly joined the ranks of those South Carolinians who "confess to a sense of humiliation in endeavoring to find a means of evading for the white man a test of intelligence which we propose to require of the black." Accordingly, he declines to be considered a candidate for the Constitutional Convention under the pledge of the late Conference to disfranchise no white man except for crime, while contriving such "purification" of the suffrage as shall prevent negro domination. What, he asks, does this mean? "Simply a qualification of the ballot for colored people, which qualification shall not apply to white men." He declares this to be opposed to the Constitution of the United States, and sure to invite federal interference. Gen. McGrady's attitude is the more remarkable because he was the author of the present so-called "eight-box" election law, which, he says, has warded off negro supremacy for twelve years, but may now have to be abandoned because of the "fraudulent practices" that have grown up under it. The Charleston *News and Courier* more bluntly affirms that "the frauds which have been committed under the color of its provisions have been sufficient almost to sink the State." Gen. McGrady's letter does not leave a very clear impression of the measure he would substitute for this law (based partly, by the way, on the Australian system). He would not embody any plan in the Constitution. On the other hand, he holds that "the supremacy of the white race cannot be maintained by any legislative trickery. The sole basis of its supremacy is its superior intelligence. The only way of maintaining that superiority is by raising high the standard of citizenship, and applying that standard to all, whether white or black."

Gen. McGrady's apprehension of federal interference in the South Carolina juggle has been promptly realized. Judge Goff of the United States Circuit Court has issued two injunctions, one directed against a county supervisor of registration, the other against Gov. Evans and the State commissioner of elections, and both together blocking the preparations for the Constitutional Convention. The second petition attacked the validity of the vote by which the Constitutional Convention was ordered, and charged the Tillmanites with a conspiracy to defraud the negro of his right of suffrage. The hearing in the first instance is set down for May 2 at Columbia, and will be awaited with the greatest interest. Gov. Evans is already hurling defiance at the court in the name of State sovereignty, and assuming an attitude of contempt. The Columbia *State* (Conservative Democratic) anticipates the overthrow of the registration laws of 1882, whose character, it says, is "only less odious to the principles of liberty and justice than the administration of them has been"; while "the combination of the two has been of surpassing iniquity," disfranchising thousands of whites as fully as any negroes. Oddly enough, it sees the ark of safety, after the decision, in the Peace Conference and its pledge of "white unity" through white disfranchisement solely for crime; whereas, precisely here is the source of Gen. McGrady's assurance of federal interference.

The point in the income-tax case which the public is desirous of having cleared up, is whether or not the income-tax law has created the conditions against which the proportional clause of the Constitution was intended to guard. When that clause was put in, it was not done for fun, or as a contribution to literature. It was done to guard against a danger which some of the framers saw, or thought they saw. That danger was, as is easily seen from all contemporary comments, that one part of the country might saddle another part of the country with an excessive share of taxation. This is explicitly recognized in

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Hylton agst. the United States decision. What we want to know from the court now is whether this has come to pass, whether a tax has been imposed which operates, and was meant to operate, unequally. As long as the court has not spoken out its mind on this point, it has not done its duty, or, at all events, it has not satisfied popular expectations. People do not care so much to know what kinds of direct taxation were familiar to George Washington and Benjamin Franklin as whether the particular kind of oppression against which the constitutional provision was meant to guard them is being attempted. All that we have got as yet from the court is a declaration that income derived from land is legally land, and that if you cannot tax land, you cannot tax the rent of land. What we want to know now is whether when you tax a man's income you tax the man—that is, if you take a portion of his earnings you do not levy a capitation tax. It is admitted that under the Constitution a capitation tax is a direct tax, and must be apportioned. Now, what we want to know is, where a capitation tax comes from. Does the taxpayer coin it, or does he give his note, or does the collector issue his own note for it and "base" it on the man? Where does the man, in short, get the money he pays the tax with? It will not do to say he derives it from income, for the framers of the Constitution, we are told, knew nothing about income except income from land. What is the mysterious source, then, from which a capitation tax would come? We want to hear the deliverance of modern judges on this most important question. A new financial world has come into existence since Alexander Hamilton's day, and we want to have the Constitution applied to it, not by the judges of 1795, but by the judges of 1895.

On the first day of March an act was approved creating two additional judges of the United States Court in the Indian Territory. These judges had to be appointed by the President, with the concurrence of the Senate. It was the opinion of Judge Story that if the Senate is in session when offices are created which have not yet been filled, and nominations are not then made to it by the President, he cannot appoint to such offices during the recess, because the vacancy does not happen during the recess. Ordinarily, if a vacancy exists while the Senate is in session, and is not filled, either because no nomination is made or because the Senate fails to act upon it, or in the last hours of the session rejects the nominee, the President has the same right to make a temporary appointment during the recess as he has when the vacancy actually occurs after the adjournment of Congress. This, at least, is the view of Attorney-General Wirt and his successors, but the question has never been determined, we believe, by the courts. In 1863, during the debate in the Senate on the army appropriation bill, Mr. Trumbull introduced an amendment which forbade the Treasury to pay any salary in such a case until the appointee should be confirmed. The debate shows that the Senate considered the President not authorized to make an appointment during the recess of the Senate if the vacancy existed while the Senate was in session. As they had no power actually to prevent the appointment, they passed an act forbidding payment of the officer's salary, which, as was then said, would "probably put an end to the habit of making such appointments." This view was combated by only one member, who referred the Senate to Mr. Wirt's opinion, and added, "However we may read the Constitution, for forty years the precedents have been against that theory."

This act has just been construed by the comptroller of the treasury in the cases of these judges. His decision is a singular one in that it upholds the constitutional right of the President to make the appointments during the recess of the Senate, but at the same time sustains the act of 1863, which withholds the salary of the appointees. In short, he decides that Messrs. Springer and Kilgore hold their offices by a valid title, and that an appropriation is provided for the payment of their salary, but that they cannot be allowed a cent until their nomination is confirmed. As the salary of an office is a mere incident to the title, it is to be hoped that this case will be brought before the courts, that it may be determined whether the act of 1863 is not another evidence of that propensity, against which the *Federalist* warns us, of the legislative department "to intrude upon the rights and to absorb the powers of the other departments."

One of the unfortunate results of the excessive attention bestowed in our legislatures upon personal considerations is that really important laws come to be enacted without proper advertisement. Every one is watching for some new political combination, some mischievous trick, or some disguised job, and fundamental changes in the law are made without attracting attention. Such is the passage of an act by the New York Legislature which materially alters the law of inheritance. Under the law as it stood, a widow was entitled to dower in her husband's real estate, whether he died testate or intestate. As the law now stands, in case of intestacy, the widow is treated as a lineal descendant. Where there are lineal descendants all of equal degree of consanguinity, the widow receives her equal share; where they are of different degrees, the widow receives the share of the descendant of the nearest degree. If there are no lineal descendants, the widow inherits the whole real estate, to the exclusion of parents and collateral relatives. While there is much to be said in favor of this change in the law, it is evident that very serious complications might arise in the case of improvident matches. The stake to be played for by the class of women who make "common-law" marriages is much increased, and as the right of dower is still preserved, subject to election, dangerous uncertainties as to title may arise. In such a community as New York city it is at present frequently very embarrassing to the conveyancer when property descends through intestate succession. Unless the decedent was a well-known citizen leaving a family, there may be trouble from claims for dower which cannot possibly be guarded against. Frequently the circumstances are such as to make the risk a very slight one, the value of any possible life estate being inconsiderable. But now it is no longer the possibility of a charge for a term of years upon one-third of the property that is to be considered; it is the possibility of an entire failure of title, the hopeless loss of the whole property. Whether the changes in the law were on the whole desirable or not, it is obvious that the public ought to have an opportunity of being heard before such changes are adopted.

The policy of introducing and discussing bills, not for the sake of passing them, but in order to make a good party platform for the next election, is one of which the English ministry are now accused by their opponents. In the last ten weeks of Parliament they have got the Welsh disestablishment bill and the Irish land bill past the second reading, and the local veto bill past the first; but neither of them has been discussed in committee, where all the real shaping of legislation is done. With the time necessarily to be taken up by voting supply, it is alleged that not more than one of these bills can possibly pass the House, yet the Government insists upon driving them three abreast, not because it expects to pass them, but in order to show the electors the kind of legislation it favors. Whether such work is shrewd politics must always be considered a moot question. It is a question which the Republicans will have to confront in the next Congress. Ex-Speaker Reed, for his part, has already declared against passing a Republican tariff bill in the House, simply for making a "record"; as nothing of the kind can be made law, he would leave the whole matter severely alone. This looks like disinterested devotion to business methods and the practicable, but Mr. Reed's enemies are not slow to say that he is really not sound on the tariff, and opposes agitating it now because he does not want to agitate it at all. Here, for example, is Mr. James Dobson of the Philadelphia Manufacturers' Club asserting:

"I do not think it will be wise for the next Congress to say that we cannot pass any laws because the present executive is so much at variance with the policy of the Republican party that it would be a waste of time and

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labor lost, for the executive would veto any measure not meeting his views on political economy. Any party who would take a position of this kind, in my judgment, would meet the condemnation of the people, and very justly so."

But Dobson ought to remember that what Reed is afraid of is, that any party which now went to work to disturb business by tariff agitation, merely for the sake of agitation and making a record, would be condemned by the people, and justly so. As Reed, not Dobson, is to organize the House, we presume it is safe to say there will be no tariff bill in the next Congress.

The rather Jingoish remarks of Sir Edward Grey, on March 28, about the French in Africa, and the rejoinder of the French minister of foreign affairs, a week later, were not without those ludicrous features which sometimes enliven diplomatic encounters. Sir Edward had heard that two French expeditions had entered the British protectorate on the Niger, and also had knowledge of rumors that a secret French expedition was headed for the Nile valley. He could only say that it must be well known to the Government of France that such acts would be unfriendly, and would be so viewed by England. Loud cries of "Hear, hear," followed, with praise of the Government's firm and patriotic attitude. Excitement reigned in the Stock Exchange and on the Paris Bourse, and all the talk was of war. All this was in entire oversight of Sir Edward's qualification, that he did not for a moment credit the rumors about the Nile expedition, and that it was not wise to attach any importance to the Niger business until the reply of the French Government was had. In other words, it was defiance, patriotic firmness, war—all with an *if*. But M. Hanotaux, on April 5, showed what a peacemaker your *if* is. He was blessedly ignorant of any French expeditions to the British Niger. He had heard, he admitted, that the Niger Company, a purely private corporation, was endeavoring to monopolize trade, in violation of articles 26, 27, and 30 of the Treaty of Berlin. But he had no doubt England would remedy that, and make ample amends for the illegal confiscation of a French vessel on the Niger. In fact, with a tact and grace which put him at a great advantage compared with Sir Edward Grey, the French minister of foreign affairs removed the whole matter from the realm of angry parliamentary discussion, and reserved it for that of calm and good-natured diplomatic negotiation. Thus ended another newspaper war, brief, but, while it lasted, fearless and glorious.

That the influence in the East of the several Powers having possessions in the North Pacific must soon undergo a readjustment, is clearly foreshadowed by the conditions of peace exacted by Japan from China. Ostensibly Japan declared war in order to obtain the complete independence and needed internal improvement of Corea. But, having won the fight, she not only demands this and the payment of a sum of money as indemnity more than equalling the utmost of her expenditure upon the war; she insists also upon the transfer to her jurisdiction of a considerable portion of Chinese territory. With the independence of Corea and the payment of the indemnity the rest of the world has only a moderate concern, but the affair takes on a different aspect when it is proposed to add to Japan's territory a portion of the province of Mantchuria and the Island of Formosa. The acquisition of the former especially affects Russia's projects of Asiatic expansion, and it is already predicted that her Government will not permit the contemplated transfer. Under the treaty just concluded, Formosa will indisputably become a part of the Japanese Empire, which with this acquisition will have what has been appropriately termed "the Malta of the North Pacific." Five years ago Manjiro Inagaki, a Japanese student at Cambridge University, England, in a monograph on "Japan and the Pacific," pointed out that, "if the occupier [Japan] of the Loo Choo Islands also occupied Formosa on a military basis, she again would have nearly absolute control of the North Pacific." This may be an exaggerated statement, but the international importance of the contemplated acquisition has thus far hardly been appreciated. The island is almost directly in the pathway of the steamship lines from Hong Kong to Australia, Panama, Nicaragua, San Francisco, Vancouver, and Japan. Steamers from Hong Kong to Shanghai run between the island and the mainland. As a military basis for attacking China, its advantages are inestimable, and Japanese authorities, before the present war, prophesied that the power acquiring it could make it a rival in commercial, as well as strategical, importance to Hong Kong itself.

The grumbling of the Russian press over the terms of the treaty between Japan and China probably signifies that the Government will use all means short of war to prevent Japan from getting a lodgment on the mainland of Asia. Such lodgment would mean for Russia a civilized and strong neighbor on her eastern frontier. As matters stand now, she has only China to deal with, whose consistency is scarcely that of a jelly-fish. When the Siberian railway is completed, so that Russia can bring her resources to bear on the Chinese frontier, she can absorb territory as easily as she absorbed that of the Turcomans in her march to Afghanistan. Not so if Japan is her rival. Russia is a much stronger power than Japan, but to fight at a distance of 4,000 miles from her capital requires an expenditure of strength out of all proportion to the expected results. The French newspapers, eager to find an ally for other purposes, side with Russia in this paper war against Japan. The German press is divided, some denouncing European interference as outrageous, while others, in the Russian interest, hold that Corea is a part of the European balance of power. England is silent so far, but there is little doubt that her influence will be cast on the side of Japan, both because it is her interest to have Russia curbed on the Pacific, and because fair-minded men object to having Japan cheated out of her victory.

While the German Government is cudgelling its brains to devise some form of international silver conference that will fool the Agrarians and yet do no great harm, the trade and banking of the Empire are not idle. Already a "Union for the Defence of the Gold Standard" has been formed, embracing representatives of all the leading chambers of commerce and of the more important banks and banking centres, together with members of the Reichstag, eminent professional men, and university professors. An active and intelligent propaganda has been begun and will be sustained by this organization, for the purpose of spreading sound ideas of finance among the people. An effective pamphlet by Dr. Karl Helfferich, "Gegen den Währungs-Umsturz," is one of the first shots in this German campaign for sound money, and a telling one it is. For outsiders its most striking pages are those which show how German bimetallism passed its flood in 1880 and the two or three subsequent years, and how both the political strength and the business strength of the gold standard have since been steadily waxing. In 1884 the Reichsbank took in only about $3,000,000 in gold, but by 1888 its gold receipts were $60,000,000, and now it has a total gold holding of more than $200,000,000. Ability to sustain gold payments, therefore, which in 1880–'84 might fairly have been questioned, is now placed beyond cavil, while the gold standard has year by year so made itself a more and more vital part of the entire commercial life of Germany that its abandonment now is simply unthinkable.

The low price of grain has had the same effect in France as in Germany on the landowning class. M. Léon Say has written three articles in the *Journal des Débats* to show that the troubles of the landowners have no relation to the currency question at all, but are due to a temporary oversupply of cereals. M. Say tells his readers also that France cannot change her system without losing her gold. In England the bimetallists have made just sufficient gains to warm their opponents up to battle. There is not the slightest reason to suppose that the conference, if it is held, will do anything more than "talkee-talkee." In fact, the impossibility of coming to an agreement is, in the last resort, the sure protection of the business world against disastrous tinkering with the standard of value.

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THE BIMETALLIC KERNEL.

MR. HARVEY, the secretary of the Bimetallic League, and author of 'Coin's Financial School,' has written an "open letter" in answer to President Cleveland's letter to the business men's committee. In this he has set out the whole bimetallic theory of the nature of debts and of the nature of contracts, and it is the queerest confession ever made by any man called a "secretary" in a commercial country. There is a great deal of mere fustian in the letter, but we shall quote the very words in which he sets out his view of the relation of money to debts:

"Money, and these debts payable in money, have been steadily increasing in exchangeable value with the property of the people. A debt for $1,000 that 1,000 bushels of wheat would have paid ten years ago, now requires the farmer to give up 2,000 bushels of wheat, in exchange for these dollars, with which to pay the same debt. The debts now in existence are principally old debts, or renewed or refunded debts, or new debts contracted to pay old debts, or debts which the people have been forced to contract by reason of the continued decline in prices. The owners of products must now give up twice as much property to pay their taxes as in 1873. Seventeen thousand bushels of wheat would have paid the President's salary of $25,000 in 1873, and it now requires 100,000 bushels of wheat to pay your annual salary of $50,000. Taxes have been increased, as expressed in dollars, and have doubled and quadrupled, as measured in the property which the people surrender with which to pay them since 1873. We have constantly pointed the people to the ever-increasing exchangeable value of the creditor's dollar, and to the reason why it was increasing, but the influence of these creditors has dominated your administration, and you insist on such a currency as they have established as a sound currency. It means the confiscation of the property of the people by the sale of property under mortgages, judgments, and executions. It means that fixed income will wipe out the interests of stockholders in our railways and corporations."

Now, one of the great uses of money is to enable men to lend without agreeing to share the debtor's fortunes—without, that is to say, becoming a partner in his business. When a farmer asks me to lend him $10,000 on the security of his farm, payable at a certain date, if he proposes that the amount he is to return to me shall depend on his success—that is, on his crops being good and the prices of his produce keeping up—I unhesitatingly refuse. I say, No. I do not want to become a farmer or to share in the profits and losses of a farm, or stake my savings in any manner on his industry, or capacity, or foresight. I have no idea how he may manage his affairs. I am willing to lend him the money if I can do so without much risk of its diminution from *any* cause, but I will not go shares with him in his ventures. I will not take pay in corn or wheat. I prefer money, because money fixes the value of my loan from the day I make it. That is what money is for. It is a measure of value, and when he promises me $10,000 I shall expect to get back what I gave him without having to listen to his stories about hard times and low prices, sickness in his family, and the water on his knee, or the high price of whiskey.

In like manner when a dry-goods dealer comes to a bank to get a bill discounted, he does not say, "Now mind, the payment of this bill in full will depend on my own account of the times. If I say that trade has been slack, or the competition has been very keen, or the fashion of goods has changed, you must make me a heavy discount. I am not going to pay you back $5,000 when the goods I buy with it have not gone off or have depreciated 10 per cent. No, no; I'm not the man to practise that sort of extortion on." Of course if any dealer talked in that way, he would not get his bill discounted. The banker would say promptly, "We are not going into business with you. If that is the way you understand trade, you must go elsewhere with your paper."

It is not an exaggeration to say that all, or nearly all, the debts of the world which are the result of loans, have been contracted on the understanding that the creditor shall not share the debtor's risks. They could not have been contracted on any other basis. Nobody but a fool would lend money to Harvey, for instance, on the understanding that if Harvey's enterprises did not prosper according to Harvey's own account, the debt should be scaled. This scaling of debts on the debtor's own statement of his affairs is, in fact, what is generally known as "fraudulent bankruptcy." It is only under that name that people are familiar with it. When a debtor comes in and says, "I am not doing well, and this is all you're going to get," the world says he is a rascal. But this is what Harvey proposes all the farmers of the United States shall say. He demands that every lender of money shall take all the risks of the debtor's business, and, worst of all, of his character.

Moreover, this plan of finance would involve a radical change in the manner of doing business of the whole civilized world. It would take us back to barter everywhere. What would be the use, for instance, of putting $10,000 in a bond, when a fall in prices might make it worth only half that amount, as is now proposed, when Harvey could step in, ask for the bond, and say that on a calm review of the whole situation the debtor was satisfied that $10,000 ought to be only $5,000, and that the $10,000 must be scratched out and $5,000 written in accordingly? Bonds would not be drawn in the present way any longer. Debtors would be made liable for so many bushels of grain, or so many head of cattle or barrels of pork; but even this form would not do. Grain might rise, and so might cattle or pork. So there would have to be a provision also in the bond that the debtor was to be allowed in that case to give the creditor smaller quantities than he stipulated for, as common justice. In fact, the settlement of debts when bonds fell due would be very like Donnybrook Fair. Only half the transaction would consist in valuation; the rest would be fighting, and the biggest creditors would get the heaviest returns. It was to prevent this confusion that money was invented—to afford a measure of value which should not be affected by ups and downs in the value of other commodities, or only in a small degree, or which, at all events, would measure men's promises in ways from which they could not depart.

As to Harvey's estimate of the fall in produce, Mr. Upton, the former assistant secretary of the treasury, a very careful statistician, says that Harvey has been departing from the truth about the price of wheat, as about so many other things. He says and shows that wheat has in ten years fallen only 26 per cent., so that a farmer who could pay a debt ten years ago with 1,000 bushels of wheat, would now have to pay only 1,360 bushels, not 2,000. So that if he cut down his debt 50 per cent., as proposed by Harvey, he would, on the Harvey plan, cheat his creditor out of 24 per cent. of his debt. But this is not all. All farmers are not dependent on wheat alone. They pay, or help to pay, their debts with other crops. Take corn, for instance. The total product of the United States is one-half more valuable than the wheat crop. It was quoted in January, 1885, on the Chicago Board of Trade at 35 cents a bushel, a few days ago at 45 cents a bushel, an increase of 28 per cent. Consequently, the debtor would be able to make up with his corn the loss on his wheat.

Mr. Upton has also examined the report on prices and wages made by a sub-committee of the finance committee of the Senate in 1893, with the following result:

"The committee carefully computed the average prices per annum of the nine principal agricultural products, barley, corn, cotton, hemp, oats, meats, rye, tobacco, and wheat, since 1860, and, after giving to each product its weight in proportion to its yield, combined and tabulated the average values in gold of these nine products for every year from 1860 to 1891, that of 1860 being represented by 100. Below will be found this tabulation for every fifth year, to which I have added the gold value of the bullion in a silver dollar, that the depreciation in the value of silver may be strikingly shown:

Year.	Relative average value of the nine products in gold.	Gold value of bullion in the silver dollar.
1860	100.0	104.6
1865	97.3	103.7
1870	107.7	102.3
1875	116.8	98.4
1880	102.9	85.2
1885	87.9	79.9
1891	98.4	74.1

"It will be seen that during the thirty-one years under consideration the exchange power of gold for the principal agricultural products, taken together, has remained substantially uniform, while the same power of silver has meanwhile decreased 30 per cent. If one can understand this statement, he will infer very properly that gold has not appreciated in its purchasing power to any considerable extent since the discontinuance of the use of silver, and that any assumption to the contrary is a fallacy derived from the imagination, or a misstatement of facts."

Similar calculations in Europe have produced results still more striking. M. Pierson is a Dutch economist of great distinction. Moreover, he is or has been a bimetallist; his difficulty is with "the ratio," which he does not see his way to fixing. He has been writing on

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the alleged scarcity of gold, and consequent fall of prices, and he takes three tables of prices computed by Continental statisticians, Messrs. Sauerbeck, Soetbeer, and Kral, and presents the rise or fall as follows:

	Sauerbeck 44 articles.	Soetbeer and Heintz 141 articles.	Kral 265 articles.
1847-1850	100	100	100
1851-1860	116	116	114
1861-1870	124	123	110
1871-1875	128	133	122
1876-1880	110	123	112
1881-1883	103	122	109
1884	94	114	101
1885-1891	87	105	101

The three calculations show a rise in prices from 1851 to 1860, another from 1871 to 1875, then a fall, according to Sauerbeck, of 18 per cent., according to the other two of 10 per cent. All three give a heavy fall in 1884. From 1885 to 1891, compared to the period from 1881 to 1883, there was, according to Sauerbeck, a fall of 16 per cent.; according to Soetbeer, of 17 per cent. The general result is, that prices did not alter sensibly between 1861 and 1883, except in the years of speculation, 1872-'3. It was only in 1884 they began to fall, and the fall from that year to 1894 was about 16 per cent.

Now, when one considers the enormous amount of new land brought within reach of the market during that period, the improvements in transportation, and the progress of invention, and the possible effects of these things on production, the wonder is that prices have not varied more than they have, no matter how steadily the price of gold and silver might be. It can be easily seen, too, that if there had every four or five years to be an investigation, such as is now going on, into the causes of the variation in prices, before men could settle the value of their debts, or if the standard of value had to be changed every time that debtors were dissatisfied with the state of their trade, there would soon be an end of lending. Nay, there would soon be an end to exchange of every description. Whatever be the rights or wrongs of currency, men will never lend money on a standard of value which the debtor can change at pleasure. They will hoard or spend or buy land, but they will not lend. Harvey may, therefore, cheat, but he will never cheat the same man twice.

LOYALTY TO PARTY PRINCIPLES.

It is the habit of the Democrats in the Massachusetts Legislature to dine together in the course of the session, and to ask some prominent party leaders to share their hospitality. We are informed by the Boston papers that at their dinner last week the Hon. Geo. Fred. Williams was one of the guests of honor; that he replied to the toast "Loyalty to Party Principles," and that in opening he said: "What higher and nobler sentiment could a man be asked to respond to? Parties may change, but if a party's principles are true, they will withstand all defeats."

This last statement is fair enough; or, rather, the converse of it is the important fact, that if a party's principles are not true, they are sure to break down in spite of all victories. But his first assertion, assuming him to be correctly reported, is one of the emphatic sayings which he, a very enthusiastic man, loves to deal in, and certainly believes in honestly at the time; and which more deliberate and cooler men are very apt to get off, not exactly believing in them, but knowing they will excite great applause from unreflective followers.

To ask, however, in cold blood, what nobler sentiment a man could respond to than loyalty to party principles, is assuming for those peculiar articles an exceedingly exalted position, to which they must show pretty strong credentials to entitle them. They must show that they are entirely consonant with the truest patriotism, the broadest humanity, the stanchest personal honesty, to say nothing of abstract morality and humility before God. Exactly this has more than once been claimed for Republican principles, notably in an exposition of them by Senator Hoar in the *North American Review* some years ago. But if a man's party principles can claim this station—that loyalty to them is the noblest public sentiment he can feel—they become confounded or absorbed in the general principles of public duty which are claimed by all parties and distinguish none. Such principles resemble the "maxims" which Patrick Henry declared were so essential to a constitution, but which are really nothing but a reassertion of the fundamental ideas of Anglo-Saxon liberty, which everybody in America accepts; and in this view Mr. Jefferson's statement in his first inaugural is true—"We are all Republicans; we are all Federalists." The Democrats claim—Mr. Williams claimed it in the course of the speech we are referring to—to be the party of the people; but so do the Republicans; so still more emphatically do the Populists; so, as far as they are a party, do the Mugwumps. It is when we come to the specific interpretation of these general notions of government, on which all in America are agreed, that parties separate, and here party principles must declare themselves, or they are nothing better than glittering generalities.

If, then, we ask Mr. Williams or any other Democrat, new or old, what are the abiding principles of the Democratic party traceable to Thomas Jefferson and George Clinton, and never lost sight of by all its great leaders, no specific answer has ever been received. We can hardly say free trade is one, when we remember Jefferson's distrust of all commercial pursuits, when we remember that free trade was the cry of the Federalists in 1807, when we know how Randall blocked every approach to a freer system. There certainly is no agreement on the incidence of taxation, in view of the divisions of the Democratic majority in this last Congress. The money question forms and has formed a bone of contention between the two ends of the Democracy; silver-men and gold-men and bimetallists, whoever they are, each confidently claiming that he is the real Simon Pure. As things look now, it threatens to split the party across in 1896. The Democratic policy towards foreign nations has swung half round the compass, the Jingoism of Soulé and Buchanan and Mason in 1855 being exactly that of Lodge and Frye in 1895, so that Senator Morgan stands like an ichthyosaurus of the ancient seas. The relations of the Representatives to the Executive in 1805, 1835, 1865, and 1895 have borne entirely different characters in the view of the Democratic party and its leaders. The speeches of the untainted Democrats in the last Congress on executive usurpation and meddling with the currency sounded like the echoes of Webster and Clay against Jackson and Taney. Even the well-worn assertions that it is the party of the masses against the aristocracy read queerly in the light of the stiff educational qualification established by the Democrats of Mississippi.

The trouble is, that neither of the two great parties is agreed on any definite theory of government or any definite plans for the future. As far as they seem to have anything of the kind, these are made utterly nugatory by local issues, local traditions, local needs. Democracy is one thing in Massachusetts and another thing in Georgia; Republicanism is one thing in Pennsylvania and another in Iowa. The solid vote of New England in the Fifty-third Congress on the great currency questions, absolutely defying what Republicans or Democrats from other States might say, proves this beyond question. There are those in the Democratic party who will attempt at the next Presidential convention to force the delegates into an uncompromising declaration of views on the great money issue. They will not be satisfied with such a currency plank as the last platform contained, which leaders of diametrically opposite views each declared meant what they said, but which all agreed was thoroughly Democratic in principle. It would not be at all strange if a similar fight were made on the classified service in behalf of the spoils system—possibly on other issues still, where the party, as soon as one leaves high-sounding general maxims and comes to a definite policy, is divided. What may emerge from the strife it would be rash to prophesy. But one thing is certain, that if loyalty to party principle is indeed one of the noblest of watchwords, party principle must have some definite meaning which can be explained to the voters who vote for the first time in 1896; and if it shall have, no one can explain it more clearly than Mr. Williams.

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PARTISAN VIRTUE.

MR. W. R. GRACE, in withdrawing from the chairmanship of the State Democracy, will, we fear, let the bottom drop out of that institution. He was its main support in both money and brains. We do not mean to say it did not do good work at the last election, but no such organization can ever in city politics do good work that will be permanent. Mr. Grace delivers as he retires a parting fling at "the fad of the day, the government of cities by non-partisan bodies of citizens getting together from time to time for such purposes." "But in my opinion," says he, "the efforts in this direction will fail; and partisan politics, elevated by true patriotism, self-sacrifice, and relentless, persistent activity against evil influences, must be accepted as the only road to permanent success."

We do not mean to compare Mr. Grace to or to class him with Hugh J. Grant, but this deliverance has about as much value for practical purposes as Grant's proposal that selfish men and men with selfish motives should be rigidly excluded from Tammany Hall. The wave of reform has at least had the effect of acquainting the practical politicians with the terminology of altruistic ethics. They now describe their aims and processes in the language of Seneca or Spinoza. They apparently live in the pure upper air of duty and principle, and pass their leisure hours in contriving plans for the elevation of mankind. But one thing they will not give up, and that is partisanship in city affairs. Purity and good government they are ready for, but it is only to be had, as Mr. Grace says, through "true patriotism, self-sacrifice, and relentless, persistent activity against evil influences in organization." One cannot help asking, however, where a man was born and where has he lived who supposes that "true patriotism, self-sacrifice, and relentless, persistent activity against evil influences" are easier to be had in city politics than non-partisanship. If we could get these virtues in partisan organizations, we should not need organizations at all. It would show that the citizens were so good that they would go to the polls and elect good men without as much as a hint from anybody. We should no more have to organize to elect good mayors than to get men not to beat their wives. It is because the experience of this city and of all cities shows that partisan organizations are invariably selfish, corrupt, irrational, jobbing, that the "non-partisan fad" has taken possession of the public mind.

Mr. Grace talks about partisanship in city affairs very much as Platt talks about bi-partisanship in police affairs. No one would suppose from his language that we had tried partisanship at all. The fact is we have never tried anything else. Every city in America has tried for fifty years to get good government through partisanship, and has failed. Not only has it failed, but it has got the opposite of good government. It has got the worst government the world ever saw. We got a government in this city which was a disgrace to our civilization. To make our case all the worse, the only cities in the world which are successfully governed are governed on the non-partisan or business plan. So that it is the non-partisans who are the practical men, the partisans who are the windy theorists, "talking," as the slang phrase is, "through their hats."

The only answer they have to make to us is that we have not tried virtuous partisanship, which is true; but it is not true that we have not sought for it. We have waited for it for fifty years, and have never seen the smallest sign of it. The partisans are always selfish, self-seeking, and often mendacious and corrupt. Mr. Grace knows very well that admonitions to them to be good and pure are generally taken as jokes. In a city there is nothing, any more than in a bank, to divide about honestly. Every resident wants the same things, as every stockholder wants dividends. The division is always over the question who shall get most plunder—that is, most places—without reference to fitness. There is no other line of division among city politicians. There never has been, and the practice which citizens have long pursued of voting on their quarrels—that is, voting to decide which set of drones shall have the salaried offices—grossly discredits the intelligence of the community.

We do not say that non-partisan government is within our reach to-day. The outlook for it just now we admit to be discouraging. But that we are making some progress towards it is shown by the fact that two organizations have blown a call for virtue and unselfishness on their respective horns. Five or six years ago they would never have thought of such a thing. They would not have pandered to the "hightoners" so far as to say that a city politician should have no selfish ends in view. They would have said that their business was to win the elections and get the offices for their respective "men," and that righteousness in city government was an iridescent dream. Now they say all city politicians must be good men, living altruistic lives, and presumably forcing offices on other men whom they think better fitted for them than themselves. Their idea is, we presume, that the Stecklerites should pursue the O'Brienites with offers of commissionerships, and the State Democrats should insist on the Plattites taking half the Public Works and two-thirds of the corporation counsel's office, solely for the good of the city. This is a great movement, full of promise for America. It may not bear fruit this year, but the seed is sown, and the harvest will come in due season. Fear not, little flock, we say to the reformers.

THE SANCTITY OF THE GRAND ARMY.

THE little skirmish Col. Waring has had with the "Grand Army of the Republic" is very useful, as furnishing a good illustration of one of the difficulties we have to contend with in establishing non-partisan administration of city affairs. The chief of these difficulties is now, and has always been, the disposition to establish qualifications for office which have no relation to the duties to be performed. A city officer has had, as a rule, to be a Tammany man, or a Republican, or a State Democrat, or an old soldier, or a "worker" of some kind, in order to get a place for which these things were no sort of preparation. We might furnish numerous examples of this sort of absurdity from the municipal history of the last twenty-five years. In Col. Waring's case, however, a new test has been set up. In order to be allowed to clean streets a man must think well of the Grand Army. He must not touch a broom if he thinks there are plenty of "bummers" in the Army. This is about as sensible as insisting that no man shall clean the city who does not think ill of Martin Luther, or who believes that silver was secretly demonetized. Now, reformers may talk till they are tired about improvements in city government, but permanent and radical improvement we shall never have until the practice of judging a man's fitness for city offices by his opinions on other subjects than city work shall be generally recognized as supremely ridiculous. There is nothing sacrosanct about the Grand Army. Even if it were all composed of good and pure men, every American would have the right to express his opinion, favorable or unfavorable, about it freely. To say that a man shall not clean streets unless he admires the Grand Army, is about as sane as the old custom in England of compelling people to qualify for office by taking the sacrament.

The trouble is aggravated in the present case by the fact that tens, nay hundreds, of thousands of good Americans agree with Col. Waring about the Grand Army. We have, in fact, never known an old soldier of undoubted record for valor and constancy and of spotless private character, who did not look down on the Grand Army. We have heard from such men within the last two days loud rejoicings over Col. Waring's courage in facing the bummers in the gate. The reason of this is plain. No one denies that there are in it a large body of as good men as ever stood in battle line. But the Grand Army has been known to the public ever since 1878 mainly as a trade union existing for the purpose of getting money out of the public.

Now what is the chief object of a trade union? It is the putting of men of every grade on an equality in the matter of wages and hours, the protection of the drones and incompetents against the ordinary consequences

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of their laziness or incapacity. One object of the Grand Army is in like manner to see that the skulkers, deserters, bounty-jumpers shall be on the same footing as the good soldiers who never shirked. One of the bravest generals of the Union army has told us, nay, has published the fact, that when he was carried off the field at Antietam badly wounded, he found in the fields in the rear, out of fire, as many men, on a moderate computation, as he had left behind in the fighting line. These men were skulkers from their duty, and they were making coffee, dancing, fiddling, and even holding prayer-meetings. We believe it is the general testimony that similar scenes might have been witnessed in the rear at every great battle during the war. These skulkers are now in the Grand Army just as well as the good soldiers. We even venture to assert that they are much more numerous than the good soldiers. The organization, too, has set up a code of morality which makes neither cowardice, nor desertion, nor lying a disqualification for pensions. It may be taken as a general rule, that the poorer soldier a man was, the more vociferous and active he is as a Grand Army man.

Take as an illustration of this the case of "Corp" Tanner. It is safe to say that from the close of the war till Gen. Harrison came into office, no Grand Army man was half as uproarious as this Corp. He was so uproarious that he at last came to appear in the public eye as, *par excellence*, the representative of the veterans of the Union Army. Under this impression of him President Harrison actually appointed him commissioner of pensions. The minute he got the office he dashed at the surplus, and began to distribute pensions with such recklessness and disregard of law that the President, Grand Army man as he was himself, had to remove him promptly. The Grand Army, however, supported him through thick and thin, and Tanner denounced his critics as "whelps." The affair led, nevertheless, to an inquiry into the Corp's record which was very useful. It showed that he was only one year in the army, and of this only a very brief period with his regiment. During the rest of his active service he "straggled" with other regiments, and was never under fire till he lost his legs. The way he lost his legs was this: He was in an orchard, lying under a tree eating an apple and reading a book, with some others, when the Confederates, spying them from a distance, dropped a shell among them, which disabled the Corp. Since his retirement from office he has subsided into silence and obscurity. If all the pensioners and veterans were examined, probably hundreds and thousands of such cases would be discovered. The great sin of the Grand Army is that it covers them up with a mantle taken from the shoulders of good men and true, and resents on their behalf the stern criticism which is their just due. In this, too, is the organization's greatest offence against morality. The worst enemy of mankind is he who makes it appear on a great scale that it is no more meritorious to die for man than to make a mutton stew with a stolen sheep.

This is not all, however, that a disgusted public has against the Grand Army. The pensions amounted in 1878 to $27,000,000, and probably reached nearly every deserving and disabled man. In two years, under the clamor of the Grand Army, they reached $56,000,000, and under the same instigation they are today $160,000,000 a year! For fifteen years these men, who professed to have fought for pure love of the Union, have devoted all the energies of a great organization to the extracting of money from the public treasury, without the smallest regard to truth, honor, or decency. The result has been to throw our finances into a disorder of which no man can yet foresee the outcome, to sprinkle knaves and loafers through our villages, to make fraud, and perjury, and malingering seem harmless and even soldierly, and to turn the infinite pathos of the civil war, the widow's and the orphan's sorrow and the patriot's agony, into materials for a claim-agent's speculation. That one man in office—Col. Waring—has had the courage to say what millions out of office have felt for years, and longed to say with a thousand tongues, shows that we are at least on the edge of a better era. All this time, too, not one word has come from the G. A. R., in spite of its political power, in behalf of any good cause, in furtherance of any reform or any attempt to improve the Government. In fact, not content with their pensions, the legislation which the veterans have secured, giving them preference in the public service, works daily injury to the city. Veterans are dreaded by appointing powers as a distinct detriment to the public, but we have yet to hear of a G. A. R. veteran who proposed to "let up" on his unfortunate country. Some sign of interest in public affairs apart from their own drafts on the treasury would now be very grateful.

SPAIN AND CUBA.

THE commonest idea in this country about Spanish administration of Cuba is that it is one of monstrous oppression and tyranny. Let it be said at once that there is much to justify this idea. There is no doubt that the Government of Spain has consistently looked upon all its colonial possessions as so many oranges to be squeezed for the benefit of the mother country. Taxes are levied and customs duties laid and navigation laws passed almost purely in the ingenious endeavor to get as much as possible out of the colonists in the way of both revenue and exclusive trade. All this is, no doubt, repugnant to Anglo-Saxon theories of good government. Especially to Americans must it seem a horrible thing to lay tariff taxes in a way to burden both consumer and producer for the benefit of some third party. But this is scarcely a fair way of judging Spain. In estimating the beneficence or wickedness of her rule in Cuba we must inquire as to the characteristics of her rule at home. If we find there, as we do, a system of frightful taxation, public jobbery, political favoritism, and perpetual shivering on the verge of national bankruptcy, then we cannot justly attribute bad government in Cuba to a malevolent intention to worry and oppress the colonists.

Quite the contrary, it is a fact that the administration of Cuba has distinctly improved in the last thirty years. There was a revolution in Spain in 1868, as well as a rebellion in Cuba; and the political reforms which were secured at home by the former event have been extended, in their proper measure, to the colony. The old press laws have been suspended or abolished; access to the courts is free; representation and suffrage have been steadily extended; measures of thoroughgoing political reform, in accordance with the desires of the Cuban Deputies in the Cortes, were on the point of adoption on the eve of the present rebellion. It is, in fact, the testimony of a hostile observer in the island that there has been, for the past score of years, on the part of the Government of Spain and the Governor-General of Cuba, "a deliberate effort to reconcile the people to Spanish rule, and to efface the terrible memories of a civil war conspicuous for atrocity and savagery."

Such being the unquestioned facts—Spanish government being practically all of a piece at home and in the colonies—how has the idea become so prevalent that Cuba is writhing under the oppressor's heel? A reason, good as far as it goes, is to be found, as we have said, in the tariff and navigation laws, which are certainly bad in conception and oppressive in execution. But the greatest outcries, curiously enough, come from people who are not at all affected by these laws—the Cuban "patriots" in exile in this country. The real owners of the sugar and tobacco plantations complain a good deal, it is true, but they address their complaints to the home government, through their chosen representatives, and get the evils remedied in a measure. But the men who are chiefly responsible for the notion that Spain is a cruel monster, preying upon her own children in Cuba, have neither home nor possessions in the island. Some of them are most estimable gentlemen, like the Cuban poet Francisco Sellén, who publishes his patriotic verse in this city. One of his poems, "To Cuba in the Days of her Humiliation," winds up with the pious wish that "the steel may again flash in the air and make thy oppressor tremble." Others, like him, lost property and citizenship as a result of the unsuccessful revolution of 1868, and

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naturally carry about with them a sense of having suffered a great wrong. But we believe it is true that the larger part of the Cuban patriots in this country are reckless and restless agitators who want to impose their rule on the island in the room of that of Spain.

This it is which explains the fact that the present revolution seems to be fed almost wholly from the outside. Some "general" has to make a landing with a body of adventurers before real war breaks out in any part of the country. No trustworthy signs of widespread popular approval of the revolution have been reported. There is nothing strange about this, as one result of the long revolutionary struggle from 1868 onward was the confiscation and sale of the property of the revolutionists. It passed into the hands of Spaniards and of foreigners. Mr. Froude estimated that there are ten times as many Spaniards in Cuba as there are English and Scotch in all the West Indies. This explains why it is that the present revolution can show so little native support. Of course there are many discontented inhabitants ready to join the guerillas, but the great mass of property owners and business men see their truest interest in the continuance of Spanish control.

How easy it is for Spain—how easy it would be for the United States if Lodge and Frye had their piratical way—to make Cuba a model of self-government and political purity, may be seen by a glance at the nature of the population. According to the census of 1887, it numbered 1,631,687 souls. In 1877 the figures were 1,521,684, thus showing a gain of but 7 per cent. in the decade. Of the total, 492,294 were negroes, and 43,811 Chinese. Illiteracy mounts up to alarming proportions: 76 per cent. of the population can neither read nor write. Nor is this wholly due to the colored element: the illiteracy among the whites alone is 64.89 per cent. The number of schools in the island is one for every 2,105 inhabitants. From all this it can be inferred how ripe Cuba is for independence and republican institutions, especially how ready to become a State in our Union. What delightful colleagues for Lodge and Morgan in the Senate would Cuba furnish! How patriotic they would be, how intense in their Americanism! With hearts beating true to sugar and tobacco and all other "good things" in sight, they would seem to be foreordained to seats in the Senate; and Senator Proctor's objections to receiving them must be set down to advancing age, the pharisaic spirit, and blindness to manifest destiny.

THE CHICAGO DRAINAGE-CANAL.

OBERLIN, O., April 16, 1895.

FEW people seem to be aware of the magnitude or of the far-reaching consequences of the enterprise upon which Chicago has embarked for the disposition of its sewer-filth. During the past three years the city has already spent more than ten million dollars in the construction of a canal which is to turn a portion of the water of the Great Lakes along an old glacial outlet into the Mississippi valley, and carry the sewage with it so diluted that it will not be a menace to the health of the Illinois valley through which it is to flow. Ten million more dollars will have to be spent before the canal is in active operation; but the work is prosecuted with such energy that its completion is looked for within the next two years.

This is not to be a canal with locks to regulate the flow of water, but an open channel one hundred and sixty feet wide at the bottom, and eighteen feet deep, with plans for deepening it still more in the future. When first opened it is to discharge 10,000 cubic feet of water per second, which is about five per cent. of the amount now flowing through Niagara River. The quantity of water to be discharged is fixed by the Legislature of the State with a view to protecting the valley of the Illinois from contamination. When the population of the city shall exceed 3,000,000, the quantity of the discharge is to be increased in proportion to the excess. The amount of the original discharge is so great that the engineers estimate that it will raise the low-water mark of the Mississippi one foot at St. Louis.

The accomplishing of such an enormous enterprise is rendered possible by the peculiar physical geography of the Great Lakes. Lakes Michigan and Huron are practically on the same water-level, about 580 feet above the sea, while Lake Erie is only eight feet lower. Lake Superior is in an independent basin twenty feet higher. The basin of the lower three of these lakes is so delicately poised that only four feet of rock and two of gravel at Chicago prevent them from spilling over into the Mississippi valley at high water. The rock-bottom of the Niagara, where it leaves Lake Erie, is only thirty feet lower than the rock shelf which forms the barrier west of Chicago. An elevation of fifty feet at Buffalo, or a depression of the same amount at Chicago, would reverse the drainage and make the four upper lakes tributary to the Mississippi. What nature could do so easily, the engineers of Chicago are to do in part by the expenditure of the vast sums put at their service by the city.

This plan for the disposal of Chicago's sewage has been devised by the city and the State without formal consultation with the other parties whose interests may be affected by it. It seems to be assumed that, since the canal is wholly within the territory of Illinois, it is not necessary to consider the other interests involved. But the cities along the lower lakes are just beginning to be aroused to a consideration of the possible effect of this scheme upon the level of the lakes, and upon the depth of the water in their harbors and in the channels which have been deepened at great expense to facilitate commerce to their ports. The Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has just petitioned the Secretary of War to investigate the matter at once, and ascertain what effect the canal will really have, so that proper measures may be instituted for the protection of all the interests at stake. In response to this action of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce, other cities on the lakes have joined in the request, so that public attention will be occupied with the question to a large extent for some years to come. A few words, therefore, with reference to the elements involved will not be amiss.

The total drainage area of the four upper lakes is 250,000 square miles, with a rainfall of about thirty-one inches. If we reckon that from 35 to 40 per cent. of this is now discharged through Niagara River (which is a liberal estimate), it would make the amount to be about 200,000 cubic feet per second. This accords very closely with the estimate made by Major Ruffner, the United States engineer in charge of the survey of the lower part of Lake Erie. In 1893 he was set to gauge the flow at Black Rock, near the head of Niagara River. As a result of this investigation he concluded that the average discharge of the river was a little over 200,000 cubic feet per second. It is not, however, an easy matter to determine how much the diversion of 10,000 cubic feet, or 5 per cent., will reduce the level of the discharging stream, and so of the lake. As the channel at Black Rock is only about 2,000 feet wide and twenty feet deep, Major Ruffner estimated that the diversion of 5 per cent. of the water flowing into Lake Erie will probably reduce its level nine inches. The Chicago engineers, basing their calculations on earlier and less perfect data, have been reckoning on a lowering of the level of from three to five inches only. But in view of the shallowness of all the harbors on Lake Erie, and of the fact that the United States has but just completed its work of deepening the navigable channel two feet at a cost of $2,000,000, even the lesser estimate is by no means an insignificant item. Especially does this appear in view of the future increase of the amount of the discharge upon the growth of the city to its possible extent.

Furthermore, it should be kept in mind that while the tax levy upon Chicago is made upon the substantial ground of promoting the sanitary interests of the city, the ulterior object of insuring a ship-canal through which the largest ocean steamers shall reach the port of the city is prominently kept in view. The completion of the drainage-canal will mark the practical accomplishment of that long-cherished dream. The engineers in charge freely talk of diverting fifteen or twenty per cent. of the water of the great lakes into the Illinois, so as to give such continuous volume to both that stream and the Mississippi as to make both navigable at all times to the largest steamers. Locks, of course, are contemplated to carry ships past the rapids which will be created at various places.

If this canal shall be adopted by the United States as a part of its system of internal navigation, it seems evident that the general Government will be called upon to protect the other interests involved from injury. This will include the maintenance of the normal depth of water in the harbors of the lower lakes and in the navigable channel to which commerce has already adjusted itself. International questions may also arise. If it is not adopted as a national waterway, it will be an interesting question whether the cost of repairing damages can be assessed upon the city of Chicago, which is to receive the direct benefit from this diversion of a public waterway.

The most feasible way spoken of to keep the level of the lower lakes up to its normal stage is to store water in Lake Superior during the early part of the season and let it down in the dryer parts of the year, thus equalizing the flow. But this involves unknown interference with vested rights on both the Canadian and the American shores of the lake, which would have to be adjusted by an international commission. The level of Lakes Erie and Ontario could be maintained by slightly constricting the outlets so as to diminish the cross-section of the discharging streams.

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It must be confessed that the boldness of the Chicago engineers, and the promptness with which the city is proceeding to carry out their plans, are scarcely less than sublime. In olden times this project of Chicago might easily have become the occasion of a war between the East and the West, or between Canada and the United States. But, happily, the age of arbitration has already come, and there will be ample time to prepare for the remedy of incidental evils before the canal shall become a fixed fact; for so vast are the stores of water in the great lakes that four or five years would elapse before the full effect of such a diversion as is contemplated would be felt upon the lake-level. Still, even the vast reservoirs of the great lakes are not exhaustless; and now is the time to forecast the results of such a far-reaching interference with the natural waterways as the Chicago canal will be when, a few years hence, it is in full operation. It certainly is remarkable that the solution of a most difficult problem in disposing of a city's sewage should render financially practicable one of the boldest schemes for the improvement of internal navigation which have ever been entertained by engineers anywhere in the world.

G. Frederick Wright.

SOSHI-ISM IN JAPAN.

Tokyo, March 30, 1895.

The attempted assassination of the Chinese ambassador, the aged Li Hung Chang, by a Japanese *soshi*, has produced a widespread feeling of shame and disgrace in Japan. The general sense of satisfaction in all classes at the conduct of the war has, to a great extent, passed away. Even schoolboys and students have a subdued air, and the noise of tin trumpets from the numberless children in the streets of Tokyo has given way to a silence all the more pronounced because of its suddenness. It is to the credit of the Japanese of every sort and condition that they feel the breach of courtesy and hospitality, not to mention the moral shortcomings of this act, so keenly. To a great extent it disarms one's power of criticism where regret is so spontaneous and immediate as it is in the present instance.

The facts of the case are probably as well known in America as they are in Tokyo. Li Hung Chang was proceeding in his palanquin, borne by Chinese, from the conference hall to his quarters, through a narrow street, when a young *soshi*, Koyama Rokunosuke, of about twenty-five years of age, rushed at him and shot him in the face. The bullet seems to have entered below the left eye, and is lodged somewhere in the upper jaw, but on this point there may be some doubt, as the Chinese attendants of Li object to the removal of the bullet by the Japanese surgeons. There is also some doubt as to whether the wound is serious or not. The latest telegrams are, however, reassuring, stating that the ambassador is rapidly recovering and will soon be able to resume negotiations.

It is not very difficult to get at the motive of Koyama's action if one has any knowledge of *soshi* character and conduct. These pests of Japan have been defined as "irresponsible political toughs," whose conduct in life is determined chiefly by two motives—an inordinate vanity and an absurd principle of loyalty to those they serve. This last virtue is supposed to be the survival of the ancient samurai spirit, but is as out of place in the present life of Japan as was mediæval chivalry in the time of Cervantes. There is this difference, however, between chivalry and soshi-ism, that the former was harmless, while the latter is extremely dangerous. Like the old soldiers of fortune, the *soshi* are willing to hire themselves to any one who is ready to support them. They have, as a rule, a certain amount of superficial education, and are above manual labor of any kind. They profess a vast amount of patriotism and cultivate the virtues of swashbucklers. Their courage, I suppose, is undoubted, and is supported by their vanity, which is all the more powerful as it takes the guise of patriotism. There is not one of them but will risk his life in any enterprise where he will be brought into public notice. Killing a prominent minister of state or foreign ambassador like Li Hung Chang is a positive luxury to the imaginations of these fellows. They utterly refuse to do honest work of any kind, and spend their days in idling, gambling, and devising endless schemes for their own advantage or for those who employ them. They are generally armed with canes which conceal sword-blades—dangerous instruments, in the use of which they are very expert.

The youth Koyama, no doubt, thought he was achieving everlasting fame in doing so exceptional a deed as killing the great minister of China. A dramatic act, in which one loses his life, or imperils it, is the very *summum bonum* of a *soshi's* existence; and, curiously enough, in certain cases, though not in the present one, a *soshi* gets both fame and honor in Japan when he would be execrated in other countries. Nishina Buntaro, the murderer of Mori, minister of education, is fairly a hero among certain classes of Japanese, and at his grave worshippers still adore his memory by offering incense. Such was the glory, probably, to which Koyama Rokunosuke looked forward, though, unfortunately for him in the present instance, he overshot the mark.

It is a curious commentary on the present state of civilization in Japan that a class of reckless heelers who at any time may develop into assassins should be allowed to exist. Even when they are taken *in flagrante delicto*, the Government, so far from using the utmost authority of the law to put a stop to them, is conspicuously lenient in its treatment of them. Crimes and misdemeanors which in Europe or America would be punished with long imprisonment are either passed over or visited with light penalties. The reason for this is, either that the Government lacks courage to encounter the hostility of the *soshi* and their employers, or that every Japanese, including the Government officials, has an element of the *soshi* spirit in him and feels a bit of sympathy, or at least of tolerance, towards the class. It is a fact that many Government officials, even of the highest rank, have at a certain stage of their careers employed *soshi*, either to defend themselves or to attack their opponents. At every parliamentary election when the voting is close in a particular district, or party feeling runs high, there are swarms of *soshi* employed on both sides, and not a few of them are killed or wounded in these encounters. Hoshi Toru, a man of ability and character, one of the leaders of the Radical party, who is spoken of as the probable successor of Count Inouye in Corea, had a large number of *soshi* engaged on his side in the last election, and the Government stood nerveless except so far as to prevent intimidation of voters at the polls.

Some time ago a foreigner, whose nationality we need not mention, encountered the hostility of a body of these hirelings. His offence was that he had dismissed a servant who in revenge joined a well-known band of *soshi* who took up his cause. The foreigner was pestered with threatening letters and visits until he could endure it no longer. He laid the case before the minister of his country, who at once proceeded to call on the Japanese minister of foreign affairs. The former represented in vigorous language that he expected the citizens of his country to receive the protection of the Japanese Government, and gave warning that he should hold the Government responsible in case the completest protection was not given. The result was that the foreigner was strictly guarded by the police, the guilty *soshi* were ferreted out, ordered to leave Tokyo, and were put under police surveillance. The foreigner was no longer annoyed by either threats or visitations. The most significant point, however, of the whole affair is that when the foreign representative urged upon the Japanese minister the necessity of crushing soshi-ism, the latter confessed that the Government was powerless to do it. The Government might give warning or give orders for some or all of them to leave Tokyo, or in various other ways to restrain them, but to abolish the system was impossible.

It is one of the weakest spots in Japanese civilization that these fellows are permitted to pursue their course without serious interference. There have been warnings time and again that they would bring Japan into serious trouble, but the warnings have been unheeded. Already three Japanese ministers have been killed, if not all by *soshi*, yet by men who derived their reckless courage entirely from the *soshi* class. Count Okuma escaped death from one of them, but was maimed for life. Here and there a voice, particularly Mr. Fukuzawa's, is heard in ringing tones calling upon the Government to stop the whole system of soshi-ism, but for the most part the public is silent about the wretched business. Japan professes to stand as the representative of Western civilization in the East. This is part of her ambition in the present war; and as compared with Corea, China, or India she no doubt deserves the place she covets. But can she preach the gospel of civilization to these people for any length of time when her Government confesses itself unable to crush an institution (for it is nothing less) which permits large numbers of men to go about with concealed weapons, intimidating whoever encounters their ill will or that of their employers? Every one in Japan knows, and the Government knows, that sword-canes can be purchased in almost every part of Tokyo for 50 cents. In going by the houses of parliament I have seen dozens of these fellows lying about on the grass outside of the compound armed with these deadly weapons, yet they were unmolested by the police.

The Government must also be blamed in another respect. It guaranteed the safety of Li Hung Chang and his suite in the most explicit terms. It wished not only to make peace under favorable conditions—it wished to show the Chinese what international usage should be. Count Ito's remarks to the previous Chinese embassy were as severe and deserved a lecture to the Chinese Government as it has probably ever received. He stated that it was notorious that the Government of China had broken the most solemn promises and used unworthy subterfuges in its dealings with foreign nations. Now, no government in the world probably has larger police powers than that of Japan. A half-dozen gendarmes stationed on each side of the palanquin of Li Hung Chang would have put all danger of as-

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sassination out of the question. Yet this simple precautionary measure was not taken.

G. D.

Correspondence.

THE CHICAGO LETTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Cleveland's Chicago letter has, from the financial point of view, a characteristic ring of honesty and sound sense, but there is also a political side which is worth attention. Being asked to address a public meeting, he replies:

"My personal inclination is strongly in favor of accepting your flattering invitation, but my judgment and my estimate of the proprieties of my official place oblige me to forego the enjoyment of participating in the occasion you contemplate."

So he proceeds to write a letter covering almost exactly the same ground as his speech would have done. The distinction is not very obvious, but there is a great difference, as his action implies. A speech from Mr. Cleveland in person at a public meeting in Chicago would have vastly more effect upon the country than any letter he could write, and the question arises, If it would promote the cause of sound money, why should he not make it?

The reason seems to lie in the tacit understanding which has grown up, that all the talking is to be reserved for Senators and members of Congress, while the President must confine himself to written communications, mostly addressed to Congress, while the members of his Cabinet are never to open their mouths at all. The effects are apparent from Mr. Cleveland's letter: "It is time for the American people to reason together as members of a great nation." Sixty millions of people to reason together upon questions of finance! "I will not believe that if our people are afforded an intelligent opportunity for sober second thought they will sanction schemes that, however cloaked, mean disaster and confusion," etc. It is precisely because we look to the "sober second thought" of the people to defeat the intrigues and manipulations which control the anarchy of Congress that our currency is in its present confused condition, and that we have two hundred millions (more or less) of silver in the Treasury which could not be sold for half its cost. If the strength of the American people is to be effectively put forth, it must be under the personal leadership and guidance of men whom they can trust.

When the battle of Arcola was won, it was not because the troops reasoned together, or because they had a sober second thought of the consequences of defeat, but because Napoleon grasped a standard and sprang upon the bridge with the cry, "Suivez-moi!" Mr. Cleveland's estimate of the proprieties of his official place means simply that he does not think fit to antagonize Congress. But that is precisely what is needed, that the President should lead an assault upon the anarchy and vacillation—to speak mildly—of that body, and should appeal directly to his constituents of the nation for support. No doubt that calls for a Napoleon in civil affairs; but if Peace is to have her victories as well as War, she will have to find the man.

G. B.

BOSTON, April 20, 1895.

MADISON ON DIRECT TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The decision of the Supreme Court on the income-tax provisions of the tariff law of 1894 has again directed attention to the question of direct taxation by the Federal Government. An officer high in the Government has gone so far as to say that it may be necessary to repeal the provision in the Federal Constitution prescribing the methods for levying direct taxes. There were some in 1790 who questioned the justice and expediency of that provision, and I find in the "Ford collection of manuscripts" the following letter of Madison on this point. It has never been published, and at this time has an interest other than historical.—Respectfully yours,

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

WASHINGTON, March 15, 1895.

MADISON TO COL. G. THOMPSON.

Jan^{y} 29th. 1789.

SIR

A convenient opportunity offering I take the liberty of adding to the former explanation of my sentiments relating to the federal constitution the grounds on wh I dislike a change of that part of it which authorizes direct taxes. I am led to give you this further trouble, by intimations that the necessity of such a trust in the Union is by many not truly understood; & is a subject on which the reasons in favour of my opinion may with propriety be suggested. Should I judge amiss, your candour will excuse the communication. Should I judge aright, your discretion will make a proper use of it.

I approve this part of the Constitution because I think it an essential provision for securing the benefits of the Union, the principal of which are 1st the prevention of contests among the States themselves: 2^{dly} *security against danger from foreign Nations.*

On the first point it is evident that there is no way to prevent contests among the States but by establishing Justice among them: and equally evident that this cannot be done but by some system that will make each bear its just share of the public burdens. If some States contribute their quotas and others do not, justice is violated; the violation of justice is the ground of disputes among States as well as among individuals; and as among the latter they produce an appeal to the law, so among the former they produce an appeal to the sword. The question to be considered then is which of the two systems, that of requisitions or that of direct taxes, will best answer the essential purpose of making every State bear it's equitable share of the common burdens. Shall we put our trust in the system of *requisitions, by which each State will furnish or not* furnish its share as it may like? Reason tells us this can never succeed. Some States will be more just than others, some less just: some will be more patriotic; others less patriotic: some will be more, some less immediately concerned in the evil to be guarded against or in the good to be obtained. The States therefore not feeling equal motives will not furnish equal aids: Those who furnish most will complain of those who furnish least. From complaints on one side will spring ill-will on both sides; from ill will, quarrels; from quarrels, wars; and from wars a long catalogue of evils including the dreadful evils of disunion and a general confusion. Such is the lesson which reason teaches us. But we have a surer guide in our own experience; which like that of every other confederacy that has tried Requisitions, assures us that they will not be duly complied with; that they will not therefore answer the public exigencies, and that they moreover lay the foundation for injustice, for discord and for contention. I need not quote particular instances in proof of what is here advanced. The whole history of requisitions not only during the war but since the peace stamps them with the character which I have given them, and proclaims the necessity of resorting for safety to the other system; the system of direct taxes which the Constitution has substituted.

To say that requisitions ought first to be tried, and if they fail, that direct taxes are then to enforce them, is little better than to yield the point by the manner of urging it. For it admits that requisitions are not likely to be complied with voluntarily; at the same time that the efficacy of them is so much insisted on: It admits again that direct taxes are practicable, although the argument against them is that the General Government cannot in the nature of things levy them. But surely if they are practicable after the refusal of the State Government to comply with the requisitions shall have *raised prejudices against the General Government,* the practicability will be much greater if no such prejudices be thrown in the way. One remark, however, ought not to be omitted. It is, that every State which chuses to collect it's own quota may always prevent a federal collection by keeping a little before hand in its finances and making its payment at once into the federal Treasury. Another remark deserves to be here made. From the reasoning of many on this subject it would seem as if the question concerning requisitions and direct taxes was whether direct taxes shall be levied or not. This is by no means the case. If extraordinary aids for the public safety shall be not necessary, direct taxes will not be necessary. If extraordinary emergencies call for such aids, the only question will be whether direct taxes shall be raised by the General *Government itself or whether the General Government* shall require the State Governments to raise them; or in other words whether they shall be raised in all the States, or be raised in some States, whilst others unjustly withdraw their shoulders from the common burden.

On the 2^{d} point to wit security against danger from abroad, it is no less evident that Requisitions will fatally deceive us. For the same reason that they will not obtain from the States their respective shares of contribution and thence become a source of intestine quarrels, they must invite foreign attacks by showing the inability of the Union to repel them: and when attacks are made, must leave the Union to defend itself, if it be defended at all, as was done during the late war, by a waste of blood, a destruction of property, and outrages on private *rights, unknown to any country which has credit or* money to employ the regular means of defense. Whilst the late war was carried on by means of impress'd property, &c., the annual expense was estimated at about twenty millions of Dollars; at the same time that thousands of brave Citizens were perishing from the scarcity or quality of the supplies provided in that irregular way: to say nothing of the encouragement given by such a situation to the prolongation of the war. Whereas after the General Government was enabled by the pecuniary aids of France to procure supplies in a regular way, the annual expense was reduced to about eight millions of dollars, the army was well fed, the military operations went on with vigour & the blessings of peace were visibly & happily accelerated. Should another war unfortunately be our lot (and the less *our ability to repel it, the more likely it is to happen*) what would be the condition of the Union, if obliged to depend on Requisitions? There are but two methods by which Nations can carry on a regular plan of self defence; one by waiving the necessary supplies by taxes within the year equal to the public expences: the other, by borrowing money on the credit of taxes pledged for the future repayment of it. The first method is considered by most, if not all nations, as impossible, with the aid of every resource they possess: In the United States, possessed of no resource but duties on trade and their trade probably at the mercy of an enemy superior on the seas, the very idea of such a method is chimerical. The only remaining method is that of borrowing. But who could be expected to lend to a Government which depended on the punctuality of a dozen or more *Governments for the means of discharging even the* annual interest of the loan? No man who will candidly make the case his own, will say that he would chuse to *become a creditor of a Government under* such circumstances. Even if the scheme of trying requisitions first, and eventually resorting to direct taxes after a refusal of requisitions, were free from other objections which condemn it, the delay & unpunctuality inseparable from it, would be fatal to it as a Fund for borrowing: or if loans could be obtained at all, it could only be from usurers who would make the public pay threefold for the risk & disappointment apprehended. What would have been the condition of America at any period since

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the peace, that is under the system of Requisitions, if Great Britain had renewed the war, or an attack had come from any other quarter, & money had become essential for the public safety? How was it to have been obtained? Would Requisitions have obtained it from the states? There is not a man acquainted with our affairs who will pretend it. Would they have obtained it in loans from individuals to be repaid out of Requisitions? There is probably not a man within the United States aiming at profit only who would have trusted his money on such a security; or who would not at least have exacted an interest of 20, 30, or 40 per cent., as an indemnification for the fallen state of public credit. We see then that the article of the Constitution in question is absolutely essential, whether we consider it as a means of preserving justice & tranquillity among the states, or of preventing or repelling foreign wars.

But besides these general considerations which affect every part of the Union, there are others which claim the most serious attention of the southern parts of it, & of Virginia particularly. If direct taxes be prohibited, and no reliance can be placed on Requisitions, the inevitable consequence will be, that whenever public exigencies arise, the duties will be accumulated on imports, until they shall have yielded every farthing that can be squeezed out of them. Now who is it that pays duties on imports? Those only who consume them. What parts of the continent manufacture least and consume imported manufactures most? The southern parts. It is clearly the interest of the southern parts therefore, and of Virginia particularly, that trade should not be overburdened; but that direct taxes when necessary should come in aid of that fund; since being laid on all the states by an equal rule provided in the Constitution, they tend to equalize the general burden on every part of the continent. It is truly wonderful that from the same quarter it should be urged, as dangerous to yield a full power over trade, lest the northern interest should overburden it with duties, & as proper to make an alteration, that might drive the government into the necessity of overburdening it.

In another view the southern states have peculiar reasons for retaining the article of direct taxation. If war ever breaks out against America where will it fall? On the weakest parts. Which are the weakest parts? The southern parts; particularly Virginia, whose long navigable rivers open a great part of her country to surprise & devastation whenever an enemy powerful at sea chuses to invade her. Strike out direct taxation from the list of federal authorities & what will be our situation? The revenue from commerce must in great measure fail along with the security of commerce. The invaded & plundered part of the Union will be unable to raise money for its defence. And no resource will be left; but under the name of Requisitions to solicit benefactions from the Legislatures of other states, who being not witnesses of our distresses cannot properly feel for us; & being remote from the scene of danger cannot feel for themselves. Is this a situation in which any man who loves his Country ought to wish it to be placed? Are these the benefits for which Virginia can wish to stipulate as a return for her concessions in favor of a Union & a General Government? That a northern state should not be averse to expunge the power of direct taxation may be conceived; because a local interest is not always postponed to the general interest. But that a Southern State should hearken to the measure, & be ready to sacrifice its local interest as well as the general interest, admits of no rational explanation to which I am competent.

With great respect & esteem I am, Sir, your obedient & humble servant, J[o] Madison, Jr.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is strange that, after a century's discussion of the subject of direct and indirect taxation, such confusion should prevail as to the exact meaning of these terms; and more especially as they explain themselves. A direct tax is, of course, a tax laid directly on its subject, whether that subject be a person or a thing; and an indirect tax is one not so laid. In a game of billiards, to send a ball into a pocket the player aims directly at it. But in a carom game, in order to hit ball No. 2 he aims at ball No. 1, striking No. 1 directly and No. 2 indirectly.

So, it is incorrect to call taxes on imports and excises *indirect* taxes, for the tax is laid on them directly and specifically. But when the taxpayer has taken the thing taxed into his possession, the tax is properly, *as to him*, an indirect tax. He then stands in the position of ball No. 2 in the carom game.

Necessarily taxation must be either on persons or on things. A capitation or poll tax is admittedly a direct tax on persons. To prevent such a tax being unequally laid, the Constitution prescribes that it shall be apportioned according to the number of persons that are to pay it. Now, suppose Congress to lay a capitation tax, but exempting a certain class of persons from its operation, could it be pretended that, although acting directly on persons, it would not be still a direct tax? The present "income tax" is palpably a tax on persons, but exempting from its operation those persons whose annual income is under a certain amount; and, being such, it is invalid under Article I. of the Constitution.

If authority be needed in support of these views, your readers will find it in the following passage from the last edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' under "Taxation," the writer of which is Prof. Nicholson, professor of political economy in the University of Edinburgh:

"The most important direct taxes practically are those levied on income or capital directly; and the most important indirect the customs and excise."

Evidently, in characterizing the customs and excise taxes as indirect, he has reference only to their incidence on the taxpayer. For, as we have seen, the taxes on customs and excise, viewed simply as subjects of the tax, are properly direct taxes. Francis J. Lippitt.

Annapolis, Md., April 15, 1895.

THE SOLDIER CASTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As showing the extent to which the war spirit, which, as you say, is threatening to turn the whole land upside down, has already gone, permit me to add an illustration to that given by you in your article on "The Soldier Caste," in No. 1553 of the *Nation*.

In the Federal Court in Council Bluffs, before Judge Wilson, the trial of a young man charged with making a false affidavit in support of his mother's claim for a pension is now in progress. This young man, named Edgington, had made an affidavit to the effect that his father was F. M. Edgington of Company F, Thirty-fifth Iowa; that he was buried at Mars, Mo.(?), January 26, 1886; and that he, the defendant, attended the funeral. This affidavit was sent to Washington along with his mother's application for a pension. An investigation by the Pension Office disclosed the facts that F. M. Edgington of Company F, Thirty-fifth Iowa, is now on the pension-roll; is a resident of Muscatine County in this State; is a stranger to the defendant and his mother, and in no way related to them.

I quote from the Omaha *Bee* the following account of the opening of the case for the defence:

"Smith McPherson made the opening statement for the defence.

"He admitted that he would be unable, probably, to show in what regiment the defendant's father served, and asserted that the young man had done as is done by men every day in the year—signed an affidavit in support of a pension claim when he really had no personal knowledge as to the main facts connected with it. . . . He wound up with a remark calculated to bring him in touch with the old soldiers who were on the jury, by saying,

"'We have no right to say that because a pension claim is invalid it is fraudulent. We expect to make such a strong showing before we get through with this case, that every one of you will say that if you were sitting in that chair in Washington instead of Hoke Smith, this woman would get her pension.'"

If Mr. McPherson is correctly reported, we have here one of the prominent politicians of Iowa, a leading member of the bar, and an officer of the Federal Court, practically asserting that perjury is not perjury when committed in aid of a pension claim.

Let us trust that Judge Wilson will follow Judge Nelson in maintaining the ancient firmness and wisdom of our Federal Court.

J. A. Phillips.

Dunlap, Iowa, April 15, 1895.

THE SPOILSMAN'S EFFRONTERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The idea that a person should serve his fellow-citizens in a particular capacity for the reason that he possesses particular qualifications for the place seems to be an idea utterly foreign to the average citizen. I should like to submit for the perusal of your readers the following extract from a "ward" paper of Chicago of recent issue. The "editor" and reporter is not a cynic nor a humorist—he probably thinks the state of affairs he depicts is all right and perfectly proper; but a civil-service reformer on reading the piece will realize that there is much work for American patriots to do. A true American could wish that some of the energy now spent occasionally on Hawaii, Samoa, and Cuba might be deflected into such home affairs as the following relates to:

"Among the applications for place, the following are given us: For superintendent of the Sixty-eighth Street water-works, Robert Aspin and Harry Martin, the former being a recent convert to Republicanism; William Walton will have his old job as superintendent of streets in this end of the ward. Mr. Walton always gave good satisfaction, and we shall be glad to see him back. Julius Danielson, who nominated Shepherd in the convention, claims as his reward street superintendent of the north end of the ward, but James Todd, the former boss, is making a great fight for the place. For sidewalk inspector there are three applicants, viz.: Lew Hargreaves, Jack Boger, and Charles Edwardts. Hargreaves is handicapped by the fact that he has been holding down a job under Collector Hanberg, and some declare he has had enough and should give some one else a chance. For Jim McLaughlin's job [in charge of water-pipes] there are any number of applicants. Michael Schmidt, it is thought, can have the place if he will take it. John McCormick, W. H. Sullivan, George Wright, and Percy Burke, a relative of Harmon S. Burke, and Charles Templeton are the other applicants if rumor is to be relied on. There are also two Polish applicants, with unpronounceable names, who are not considered in it. For bridge-tenders, there are over three hundred applicants, and Ald. Shepherd, who is chairman of that committee, is hounded to death. Walter McCall is a candidate for harbor master.

"The following gentlemen have 'caught on' to jobs in the county treasurer's office: John B Price of Irondale; Barney Rozynek, W. E. Lewis, the barber; and Squire Burke, a son of the president of the Twenty-third Ward Republican Club."

Of course it would be very doctrinaire, unpractical, and theoretical (and everything else that is bad, besides being un-American), but some of us visionary people would like to

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see these numerous applicants "lined up," and the most capable of them selected for the places on exactly the same principle that an employer would select applicants for a place in his works—that is, fitness; and the applicant, once selected, should hold the place during good behavior. Why do our missionaries go to Africa to preach the Gospel to the heathen? E. L. M.

CHICAGO, April 16, 1895.

BONDED EMPLOYEES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recommendation of the legislative committee on the Brooklyn strike that railroad employees be licensed, so that a motorman or gripman who has neglected his duties in one position will be prevented from securing similar employment elsewhere, is worthy of thoughtful consideration. Some method of adding to the responsibility of men of this class should unquestionably be devised, and it has long seemed to the writer that public safety would be increased if the companies should require the deposit of a bond of say twenty-five dollars from each new employee. No man who is unable to furnish such security is worthy of being intrusted with the management of a car moving at high speed through city streets, and such a bond would be of especial value in preventing that wanton destruction of property by irresponsible strikers which has been so injurious to the laboring man as well as to his employers.

The efficiency of a small force properly applied should be recognized in Political Economy as well as in Mechanics. J. H. P.

PHILADELPHIA, April 16, 1895.

TWO LETTERS OF RUFUS KING'S.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of April 10, 1895, there is a review of the second volume of 'The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King,' in which, while the volume is spoken of most favorably "as rich in new material and in the selection of letters showing care and discrimination," the reviewer points out some faults "in the hope of making it [the work] even better."

It is not my purpose to pass upon these, which, though they are blemishes, are in the main of no great moment. But there is one which requires a correction, inasmuch as there is an inaccuracy in the fact stated, and apparent carelessness on the part of the gentleman who kindly had the Hamilton papers in the State Department at Washington examined for me, giving me a list of those written by Rufus King. The charge is: "Now have the Hamilton papers been thoroughly searched, as they contain the letters described by the editor as not to be found."

These letters referred to were two written on April 17 and 20, the year not given, but in 1796, by King to Hamilton in answer to three short letters by the latter, published on p. 61 of this second volume. On p. 62 the editor regrets that these letters cannot be found, "as they must have given some interesting facts, as well as the views of Mr. King relative to the important questions under review. . . . A search for them in the United States State Department among the Hamilton papers by Mr. Andrew H. Allen, Chief of Bureau of Rolls and Library, at the editor's request, has been unsuccessful."

In this statement there are two serious errors: the first is, that they *are* among the Hamilton Papers in the Department of State; and the second, that in the list furnished to me of the letters of King, *these two letters* are noted as No. 16, pages 141 and 143 of the Hamilton Papers. Mr. Allen asked me to mark on the list such as I desired to have copied. For some reason, for which I cannot account, possibly because the year in which they were written was not in them, I did not mark the letters for copying and they were not copied; and as they did not appear among my copies, I must have inferred, most carelessly, that they did not exist. Mr. Allen, against whose accuracy I have most unjustly recorded an incorrect statement, was therefore not in fault, but really placed at my disposal the desired information. I regret that I cannot make this correction where the charge is made, on page 62 of this second volume, but I shall insert it in an appendix to the third, where a copy of the letters shall be placed.

I must ask from you the privilege of making this statement, and also to publish the two letters from Mr. King, as copied below, and thus follow the refutation of the above charge as speedily as possible, giving your readers the benefit of such information as they contain.

CHARLES R. KING,
Editor of 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King.'

ANDALUSIA, PA., April 17, 1895.

Hamilton Papers, No. 16, p. 141.

RUFUS KING TO ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

Monday Morning 17 Ap.

In general I agree in the course you recommend. *Separate Bills will be reported to the House this* morning providing for the Sp. Ind. & Alg. Treaties. They will pass the H. and be sent to the Senate by the middle of the week. I perceive no impropriety in adding to the first of these Bills received by the Senate, *and in succession to each of them if* requisite, a provision for the Br. Treaty. Such amendment, if rec'd in the House before they take a question, it is believed would have influence.

[The Merchants and traders' is signed with unexampled unanimity. Baltimore have prepared a similar petition wh. will be very generally signed. Gen^{l} Smith, who is now there, writes that the Treaty has gained many friends, that they are next to unanimous in favor of its execution, that Annapolis is likewise unanimous, and that he thinks nine-tenths of the State are for carrying it into effect. He adds that a memorial has been drawn up and signed by most of the respectable People in Baltimore, approving the President's conduct in refusing the Papers], that he thinks a counter memorial could be obtained, but that he has discouraged it seeing the necessity of unanimity at the present crisis. He returns to-morrow or next day & will be zealous for the execution of the Treaty. His friends may be induced to act upon his mind, which balances, so as to decide it. Adieu. R KING.

(Addressed) Free. R. King—Alexander Hamilton, Esq., New York.

(Endorsed) R. King, Esq,—Rufus King, April 17, 1796.

Hamilton Papers, No. 16, p. 143.

Wednesday 20. Ap.

The Petitions of the Merchants and others will be presented to-day, and it is said they have been signed by almost every Merchant and Trader in the City. Pettit, Barclay and some few others are exceptions. A counter Petition has been very industriously carried through the City and its suburbs; and though very few Merchants, Traders, or principal Mechanicks have signed it, it will show a long catalogue of Names. The persons engaged in this service have been very successful in the Northern and Southern Liberties, and taking their stands upon the wharves, they have collected the names of sailors and others, as well foreigners as Citizens. Baltimore has become very jealous, and I fear from the displeasure at the conduct of Col^{o} Smith, they have hazarded his vote and influence whatever it may me [*sic*] in the Question of Provision for the Treaty. They have drawn up a Paper, which is signed by almost the whole body of Merchants, in which they request *and instruct* him to promote by the proper provisions the Execution of the Treaty. His inclination was in favor of a Provision, but I am apprehensive, his Pride will be so wounded by *this instruction* that he may vote against his judgment to prove his independence. We shall probably receive from the House today a Bill making an appropriation for defraying the Expences of carrying into effect the Sp. Treaty.

We shall amend it by adding a provision for the Br. Treaty. If the House disagree, we shall adhere, and they will lop the Bill by refusing our amendment. We shall then add to the Algerine Bill an amendment providing for the British and Spanish Treaties. The House will also decide the Fate of this Bill. We shall then add to the Bill providing for the In. Treaty an amendment providing for the British, the Span^{h} and the Algerine Treaties. The House will also decide the Fate of this Bill, we shall then offer them a Bill, providing for all the Treaties; this likewise they may reject, but my Belief is that the opposition will give way before we have gone through this course.

Yrs. &c RUFUS KING

(Endorsed) Rufus King Esq., (No date) April 20. No. 3.

GERMAN STUDENT TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of February 28, which I have just read, I find a short article concerning the taxation of students in the universities of North Germany. Göttingen is one of the universities from which—this article says—foreign students of "limited means" are kept because of the imposition of an income tax. In reply, I should like to say that there is at present in Göttingen a flourishing colony of thirty American students, some of them of two years' residence, and not one of whom has been called upon to pay any tax whatever.

The city of Göttingen levies a local tax on all residents of three months' standing; but from this tax students are expressly exempt.

Respectfully yours,

HARRIET FRENCH MIXTER.

GÖTTINGEN, April 10, 1895.

PROF. JAMES PILLANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I fear the lapse of forty years has weakened the memory of the Edinburgh prizeman of 1855, who in the *Nation* of April 4 writes of his Latin professor as "poor old Pillings." A man of sufficient eminence to find a place in Byron's "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers" might have been spared the ignominy of a name misspelled by one of his own pupils.

"Scott may perchance his name and influence lend,
And paltry Pillans shall traduce his friend."

A. D. SMITH.

SACKVILLE, NEW BRUNSWICK, April 18, 1895.

POOR INK ALSO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "H. D. C.," in the *Nation* for April 11, justly complains of the quality of paper now used in writing and printing and for other purposes. We hear, also, similar complaints about ink. This is no imaginary evil, and it is doubtless true that the greater part of the books, periodicals, and records printed or written on the paper and with the ink now in use will, within a century, have perished from the earth.

There are compensating features, however. Is it a matter for regret that the greater number of the books and periodicals of the day are

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doomed to early destruction? The prospect of the utter annihilation of nine out of every ten current novels, poems, and magazine articles, and of many of the ordinary text-books for schools and colleges, is hardly one to make the judicious grieve. But paper varies in quality even as the stars differ in lustre, and fortunately the best books are as a rule (alas for the exceptions!) printed on the best paper—which in these degenerate days is, it must be confessed, none too good. While some of the good books must perish, it is the worthless that will first decay, from being printed on equally worthless paper. Behold an example of the great law of the survival of the fittest, and let us hope that it will clear the way for a generation of writers of higher ideals and of a less mercenary spirit.—Truly yours, M. W.

COLUMBIA, MO., April 13, 1895.

Notes.

THE prospectus of the English Dialect Dictionary to be edited by Prof. Joseph Wright, hon. secretary and literary director of the English Dialect Society, is now published. This great work will be issued by annual subscription—parts i. and ii. during 1896, and the remaining parts at half-yearly intervals. A guinea a year secures at least 288 pages of the ordinary edition; two guineas being the rate for a special edition of 250 copies on Whatman hand-made paper. Eight years will be required for completion, and a thousand subscribers are needed to launch the enterprise. Names should be sent to Prof. Wright at 6 Norham Road, Oxford; subscriptions (in advance of January 1, 1896) to the Rev. Prof. Skeat, 2 Salisbury Villas, Cambridge. The vocabulary will embrace all dialect words still in use or known to have been in use in the past 200 years in Great Britain and Ireland, together with all American dialect words still in use in the British Isles. Geographical area, pronunciation, and immediate etymology will all be shown. The specimen pages are very attractive typographically. It seems to us highly desirable that arrangements for delivery through some house in this country should be made, for the sake of American subscribers.

Part i. of Prof. Lydekker's 'Royal Natural History' will be issued immediately by Frederick Warne & Co., together with a pocket guide to British wild flowers, 'Wayside and Woodland Blossoms,' with colored plates; 'Angling and How to Angle,' by R. B. Marston; 'The Spirit of Cookery,' by Prof. Thudichum, and 'Dinners Up to Date,' with menus in French and English; and 'The Legends of King Arthur and his Knights,' compiled by James Knowles.

The Dean of Winchester's 'Life and Letters of the late Prof. E. A. Freeman' will be brought out in two volumes by Macmillan & Co., who promise also 'The Principles of Sociology,' by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings of Columbia, a new volume of short stories by Henry James, and an illustrated 'History of the Fan,' by Miss M. A. Flory.

The 'Letters of S. T. Coleridge'; a volume of Letters by the late Celia Thaxter, edited by Mrs. Fields; Justin Winsor's 'The Mississippi Basin,' 1697-1763; a 'Life of Gen. Thomas Pinckney,' by the Rev. C. C. Pinckney of Charleston; and a Texan civil-war novel, by Mrs. M. E. M. Davis, 'Under the Man-Fig,' are to appear directly from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A posthumous volume is to be added to the works of Leconte de Lisle. Since the poet's death his manuscripts have been gone over by his publisher, M. Alphonse Lemerre, aided by Mme. Leconte de Lisle and MM. F. Coppée, De Heredia, and De Guerne. Some fifteen hundred unpublished verses were found, and to these will be added the "Apollonide" and the thousand verses of the "Passion." These last poems were suppressed by their author in the Poulet-Malassis edition, on account of what seemed to him their too idealistic spirit. The volume will also contain the panegyric on Victor Hugo which Leconte de Lisle delivered when he succeeded to Hugo's chair at the Academy. The book will appear at the beginning of May, and will be the fourth volume of the poet's complete works.

M. de Heredia, whose reception into the Academy has been long delayed on account, it is said, of the fastidious care which he has been bestowing on his discourse, will be received on May 30. François Coppée will make the reply to his address. Bourget's reception is fixed for June 13.

Among the posthumous papers of the painter Anselm Feuerbach, who died at Venice, February 4, 1880, in the fifty-first year of his age, were found the fragments of an autobiography, which were published in Vienna soon after his death under the title of 'Ein Vermächtniss,' with an appendix of remarkably pithy and pertinent aphorisms concerning art. This book, of which a third edition appeared in 1890, attracted considerable attention, awakening new interest in the life and labors of the artist, and exciting a very general desire for a fuller and more consecutive account of his career. This wish has now been realized by the publication of Julius Allgeyer's 'Anselm Feuerbach, sein Leben und seine Kunst' (Bamberg: Buchner). The biographer, a well-known engraver and connoisseur, first met Feuerbach in 1856 at Rome, and was so strongly drawn to him by ties of sympathy with his high aims and aspirations that the casual acquaintance soon grew into a warm and lasting friendship. This intimate fellowship continued for nearly a quarter of a century, during which Allgeyer carried on a constant correspondence with Feuerbach, and followed the development of his genius with lively interest and a clear perception of its marked individuality and uncommon versatility. He has turned his rare opportunities to good account, and produced a book which is not only an interesting biographical and psychological study, but also a valuable contribution to the history of the different schools of art that have enjoyed more or less reputation in Germany during the last half-century. A portrait of Feuerbach, painted by himself and engraved by Allgeyer, forms the frontispiece of the volume, which is also adorned with thirty-eight autotype illustrations. The table of contents and index are both good, and an appendix contains a list of Feuerbach's oil-paintings, water-colors, and sketches, 485 in all, with the names of the present owners.

The fact that the late Prof. G. J. Romanes, who began his scientific career as a dogmatic atheist, ended his life in the communion of the Church of England, was made known at his untimely death. Fragments of a contemplated book explaining and defending this change of view were found among his papers, and have been printed under the title 'Thoughts on Religion' (Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co.). What the work would have been had Prof. Romanes lived to complete it, cannot now be said; but it is certain that these disjointed notes have only the artificial value due to the personal reasons mentioned. De Maistre long ago remarked on the futility in general of the arguments of converted sceptics, and it is impossible to imagine the considerations which Romanes thought were efficient with himself proving as strong with other minds. The editing has been done by the Rev. Charles Gore, who exhibits commendable restraint, for the most part, not smoothing away obvious contradictions, or suppressing opinions which he cannot approve of, and only in one or two places betraying the complacence of one with a valuable theological trophy in his possession.

That the full use of all one's physical senses, especially in childhood, is necessary for normal psychical development, at first might challenge controversy from some. It does not when we reflect that deafness in infancy blocks the only natural avenue of mental communication, directly by excluding others and indirectly by preventing speech. The wonderful triumph over deaf-mutism and the added infirmity of blindness in Laura Bridgman and Helen Keller are exceptions that illustrate the rule. Nature is powerless to substitute one sense for another, but intelligent care may remedy the worst conditions. The untaught deaf are apt to be morose, obstinate, and self-centred. That some mental disability is apt to follow a partial want of aural power, and that imperfect speech indicates nervous deficiency or disturbance, probably occurs to few but physicians and very intelligent teachers. What too often is charged to inattention or stupidity in the dull child at school is simply physical insensitiveness to sound. A little book by Lillie E. Warren on 'Defective Speech and Deafness' (New York: E. S. Werner) treats of the relation between these states, and incidentally shows the enormous number of children whose hearing is imperfect and who are thus handicapped. The chapter (six) that distinguishes between the improvement of hearing and the development of hearing is especially commended, and all teachers of the young and parents of children whose sense of sound is in any degree defective are pressed to read this essay, that modestly but strenuously advocates the importance of the early recognition and efficient correction of these troubles. The author shows the consciousness of experience, and has made a valuable contribution to practical pedagogy with imperfect subjects.

The 'Home Treatment for Catarrhs and Colds,' by Leonard A. Dessar, M.D. (New York: Home Series Publishing Co.), "has been written with a view of supplying the general reader with a trustworthy guide of instruction for the proper care, prevention, and treatment of catarrhal troubles of the throat, nose, and ears, and their complications." It is hardly necessary formally to say that it does not accomplish this impossible service.

The progress of the age, one had almost said the wheel of progress, is distinctly shown by the reference to cycling that Dr. Mary Bissell Taylor makes in her 'Manual of Hygiene' (New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.). She says it "is a most desirable exercise and addition to our out-of-door sports," and adds, as with authority: "Although theoretical objections have been urged to cycling for women, the experience and observation of the writer have failed to demonstrate their truth." This is the first recognition of the newer locomotion that we have observed in formal treatises on health. The view taken is correct. The book as a whole is a good elementary one, although the style is very diffuse. It would

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seem better adapted as a text-book for high-grade schools than for medical students, as designed.

With the coming of April's bloodroot and hepatica, we naturally look for the first out-door books. Mr. Joseph Jackson, in many rambles 'Through Glade and Mead' (Worcester, Mass.: Putnam, Davis & Co.), has thoroughly learned the plants about Worcester, and his book stands ready to guide the lover of wild things through fields, woods, and highways, showing him the various attractions they offer from spring's first awakening till the fading witch-hazel ends the year's pageant. A full classified list of the higher plants of Worcester County adds much to the book's value.

The Scribners issue a revised edition of Mrs. William Starr Dana's 'How to Know the Wild Flowers,' with 52 new plates and about 60 new flower descriptions, besides other additions. A deservedly welcome book is thus made still more acceptable.

The text of Part vi. of Mr. Wm. C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America' (New York: Harris Publishing Co.) is entirely given up to the catfish, which is declared to be emphatically the farmer's fish, in place of the inferior carp, "that humbug of angling and edible fishes." The two colored plates from oil-paintings represent the Eastern or Banded Pickerel and the Kingfish, Whiting, or Barb.

We noticed the other day a History of Florence, Mass., with special reference to its documentary and reminiscential account of the "Northampton Association of Education and Industry" at that place. A paper on the latter theme in the March number of the *New England Magazine*, independently prepared by Olive Rumsey, as the fruit of much intelligent research, will be found a material addition to Mr. Sheffield's chapters on the Association. Miss Rumsey's generalizations are for the most part sensible and sound, but she has been led astray by the accidental anti-slavery spirit and practice of the Northampton Community. The abolitionists as a body, much less their leaders with rare exceptions, were not diverted into socialistic experiments in the forties. The very definiteness of their task saved them from temptation to embark in schemes of universal regeneration. They were content, to borrow a phrase of Emerson's, "to make a sally against evil by some single improvement."

A recent journey through the northern part of Nicaragua is described by Dr. Bruno Mierisch in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March. A considerable part of the country traversed, though of extraordinary fertility, was uncultivated and without inhabitants simply from want of communication with the coast. On the accompanying map is indicated the route of a projected railway from the heart of this region to the head of navigation on the Rio Grande, 120 miles distant. In the higher districts the climate is delightful, but in the swampy plains the mortality from fever is appalling. There were evidences of gold in many places, but apparently not in very paying quantities.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April has an interesting account of British New Guinea by the administrator, Sir William MacGregor. Originally occupied to preserve Australia from close foreign neighbors, the three colonies, Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria, share the responsibility and expense of the Government. It has been an eminently peaceful conquest, for Sir William says that he had "neither soldier nor policeman" to aid him in establishing his authority. Now the law is administered in the various coast settlements by native magistrates, and order maintained by some sixty Papuan constables. The people are still in the stone age, and there have been discovered "no old ruins, no building, or other remains of an older or different race." The progress is very slow, but in some districts large numbers of cocoanut-trees have been planted by the natives, and the habit of regular labor is being formed among them. Though traces of gold are met with at a great many different places, the hope of the country is in agriculture. Its soil is adapted to every tropical production, and as it lies just north of the hurricane zone, the crops are not liable to damage from this cause. Malarial fever of a mild type is the only prevalent disease. Prof. Wagner contributes an account of a new calculation, by zones of ten degrees of latitude, of the areas of land and water on the globe, in which he finds the proportion to be 1:2.54.

The Amherst Summer School of Library Economy will reopen on July 1 and close on August 3. A reasonably thorough education and some special aptitude for work among books are requirements for admission to this course. Particulars will be furnished by the instructor, Mr. Wm. I. Fletcher, on application.

The fourth session of the School of Applied Ethics will be held at Plymouth, Mass., for five weeks beginning July 8. A new feature will be the department of Education, "considered not as a professional matter, but as a social and ethical force and in relation to other such forces." The secretary is Mr. S. Burns Weston, No. 1305 Arch Street, Philadelphia.

A movement is on foot to set up a drinking-fountain in the old plaza at San Francisco as a memorial of the late Robert Louis Stevenson. Subscriptions towards a fund of $1,500 for that purpose may be sent to Mr. W. D. Adams, University of California.

—Mr. Mitchell Vincent, a professional engineer and draughtsman of Onawa, Iowa, has had the happy thought to plot the course of the Missouri in 1804 as laid down in the MS. journals of Lewis and Clark, at least for the Iowa portion of the river. He has obtained these data from Dr. Elliott Coues, the latest editor of the explorers, and has made a beginning with the stretch that bounds Monona County on the west. A few blue prints of this map are in private circulation. The plotting possesses an extraordinary interest and no small hydrographic value, inasmuch as it includes the United States survey of 1852 and the county survey of April, 1894, and thus exhibits the changes in the stream at two intervals of approximately forty-five years. The antics of this mighty river in alluvial soil are almost incredible; one who should attempt to follow literally in the track of Lewis and Clark in their ascent of the Missouri would have frequently to convert his pirogue into a "prairie schooner." The tendency of the river, on the whole, at this particular point, has been to straighten itself, and Iowa has been the gainer by the operation, at the expense of Nebraska. We hope nothing will prevent Mr. Mitchell from completing his task, and it were much to be desired that the whole length of the Missouri might be treated in the same way. His map renews the feeling we have already expressed that the original codices of Lewis and Clark ought to be published in full—if not by national authority, then by private liberality.

—Dr. John Kells Ingram's 'History of Slavery and Serfdom' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan) is an expansion of the article "Slavery" in the ninth edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' The additions are considerable, but not sufficient to remove the impression that we are reading a summary which is too compact to have any literary character. The American section has been expanded as much as any, but in the 'Encyclopædia' it was absurdly inadequate, and it is hardly less so in the book. There is not a word about the colonial development of the institution, and while relatively a good deal is said about the anti-slavery sentiments of "the fathers of the American Union," nothing is said concerning the decay of such sentiments in the hot air of the cotton-gin prosperity. With these exceptions the outline preserves very well the salient features of pro-slavery aggression and the anti-slavery development. Those who are troubled by the writer's incidental opinion "that the Union in its present condition cannot long continue to exist," can reassure themselves by reading Mr. Bryce's new chapter in his 'American Commonwealth,' "The Home of the Nation." In conclusion, the segregation of the colored people from the whites is urged, either in Liberia or elsewhere—an impossible business through any mechanical device, and undesirable as the result of any gradual process of mutual alienation. In the bibliography of the subject there are only four titles on the American part of it, and these not the most significant. Von Holst's 'Constitutional History' is not among them, nor Olmsted's 'Cotton Kingdom,' a book likely to be as classical for the antecedents of our civil war as Arthur Young's 'Travels in France' for those of the French Revolution.

—The current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* brings no special news from the excavations at Delphi. Mr. Louis Couve publishes, with an ample and learned commentary, some inedited inscriptions which illustrate the wide political relations still maintained by the Delphic shrine even after its actual power in Greece had passed away. The Ptolemies, the Seleucidæ, and the Kings of Pergamum continued, as a matter of tradition and policy, to consult the oracle with deference in regard to important undertakings, and to invite its representatives to preside over high religious functions—ceremonials of thanksgiving or of political significance. The Delphians in return pass complimentary decrees expressing their gratitude, and bestowing crowns, statues, and the various honors at their command on their royal benefactors. The situation reminds one somewhat of the present predicament of the Vatican. The most interesting of the decrees cited by Mr. Couve is one which records the thanks of the city and the honor of a crown and a bronze statue conferred on Nicomedes III. of Bithynia (91–74 B. C.) for his generosity in restoring to the temple thirty slaves who had formed part of its retinue, and had, through piracy or otherwise, drifted to that distant region. The list of functionaries is almost precisely similar to those of the temple at Delos, and includes a baker, a cook, some carpenters, and herdsmen for the sacred cattle. Notwithstanding the official certificate that is here given to the "piety" of Nicomedes, he is known to history as a vicious and unscrupulous tyrant.

—M. A. de Ridder, in his exhaustive paper on the Island of Gha, furnishes the complement to the researches of M. Cambanis as to the drainage of Lake Copais, which we noticed lately. This island, called also Goulas ("the fortress"), is formed by the rising of the lake, and its area of about fifty acres is surrounded by Cyclo-

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pean walls, which formed a system of defence in connection with a massive castle situated on the highest point, close to the northern edge. M. de Ridder gives a plan of this fortified encampment, accompanied by elaborate measurements. The fortified palace presents a general resemblance to those of Mycenæ and of Tiryns, with some suggestive differences of detail. The rooms are smaller, less abounding in ornament, and were hastily constructed, as if in view of some pressing emergency. The style of the palace and fortifications is of a piece with that of prehistoric structures in the vicinity—the three colossal drains which conveyed the overflow of Lake Copais into the "Catavothræ," or natural rock tunnels, and the well-known dome-shaped chamber at Orchomenus, called the Treasury of the Minyans. These, together with the fortifications of Goulàs, or Gha, M. de Ridder would refer to the later Mycenæan epoch, verging on the historic period. The island was converted hurriedly into a fortified camp, probably as a refuge against the inroads of some already threatening invader, before whose successful progress it was, a generation or two later, abandoned once for all. Some useful and novel illustrations of the development of Greek sculpture are figured and discussed in the minor articles. One of these is a funereal slab of Ionian origin, belonging to the sixth century, and representing in full-length profile a warrior with a wild boar at his feet, which is evidently a ruder forerunner of the well-known stele of Alxenor. Another example of the style and influence of the Ionian school of Asia Minor is a sphinx, or guardian genius of tombs, preserved in the Louvre and found in Cyprus. This also is of the sixth century, and is a rare type of its class, not only because sculptured in the round, but because the arrangement of the hair, and the expression of the mouth and eyes, show an archaism far advanced in method and artistic skill. The curves of the lips recall the expression of "la Boudeuse" in the Acropolis Museum.

—Dr. Charles Waldstein, recently elected Slade Professor of the Fine Arts in the University of Cambridge, England, who is at present (as Professor of the History of Art in the American School of Classical Studies at Athens) conducting excavations at the Argive Heræum, writes as follows from Argos, under date of March 28:

"As I write, I sit on the walls of the second temple of Hera (of the fifth century B. C.), while the men are massed on the slope below, to the south, where last year we found the first indications of a large building between twenty and thirty feet beneath the foundation walls of the second temple. As we wished to lose no time this year, Mr. J. C. Hoppin (Harvard, '93), together with our architect, Mr. E. L. Tilton of New York city, and Mr. T. W. Heermance (Yale, '93), began excavating a week ago, and carried on the work very successfully before my arrival here. The building below the south slope of the second temple promises to be one of the finest of the eleven buildings we have already discovered on this most favorable site. Of the north wall, which is of the best Greek masonry, four courses are standing. We have already followed it up for more than a hundred feet, and have not yet come to the end. The pillar bases in the centre are all *in situ*. On one of these last year a drum of the column was still standing, and we have since discovered two others. Here Mr. Hoppin found some well-preserved large fragments of the metopes from the second temple, together with two heads in excellent preservation, one of which (a warrior with a helmet) fits the neck of a fragment of a metope with the greater part of the torso. If our good fortune continues, we shall be able to present fine specimens of metopes of this temple, which is second only to the Parthenon in artistic importance. The grant of the Archæological Institute and (above all) the liberality of Mrs. J. W. Clark of Pomfret, Conn., enables us to carry this season's work to a termination without the worries of cramped means."

—In a couple of finely printed and fitly illustrated volumes entitled 'Unter den vier ersten Königen Bayerns' (Munich: Beck), Luise von Kobell gives a series of delightful sketches of social and political events under the first four kings of the Wittelsbach dynasty, covering a period of eighty-five years from the accession of the Elector, afterwards (1806) King Max Joseph, in 1799, to the death of Ludwig II. in 1886. The first section of the work (pp. 1-48) is a chronicle of the Kobell family, dwelling especially on the life and character of the author's great-great-grandfather, Ferdinand Kobell, an artist of considerable distinction and a most admirable man, whose letters to his son, Aegid, may be compared to those of Lord Chesterfield in lively humor and knowledge of human nature, but are far superior to them in moral elevation and in the inculcation of personal purity and integrity and right rules of conduct from an ethical as well as a conventional point of view. These letters, written from 1791 to 1793, record interesting incidents of the French Revolution, and contain repeated expressions of indignation at the arrogance and profligacy of the French emigrants on German soil. If the Duc d'Enghien was the frivolous and shameless fellow here described, his murder by Napoleon does not leave much room for regret. The most entertaining as well as the most instructive portions of these volumes are those in which the author relates her personal recollections, beginning with her first ball in 1838, ten years before the abdication of Ludwig I. Her position, first as the daughter of a Munich professor and popular poet and intimate friend of Maximilian II., and secondly as the wife of August Eisenhart, ministerial councillor and private secretary of Ludwig II., afforded her rare opportunities of observing the making of history from behind the scenes, and from this social vantage-ground she looked around her with uncommonly keen and inquisitive eyes. Her lively pictures of the weekly reunions of artists, poets, and scholars under the hospitable roof of the veteran philologist, Friedrich Thiersch, and of the life and conversation of the court circles and cultivated middle class in Munich during the past half-century, are very entertaining reading. Valuable, too, as a source of information for future historians is her portraiture of the unfortunate romanticist on the throne, Ludwig II., whose vain endeavor to reconcile the sentiments of a patriotic German and the duties of a constitutional monarch with unbounded admiration of absolutism as embodied in Louis XIV. of France, would have sufficed to make him crazy, if it had not been already symptomatic of incipient insanity.

IMBECILES ALL.

Degeneration. By Max Nordau. Translated from the second edition of the German work. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp xiii, 560.

THIS book possesses the same qualities that brought the author's 'Conventionelle Lügen' to the notice of the press censorship in Austria: it pursues a certain philanthropic aim with something too much of vivacity. The author sees mankind, as he believes, on the brink of a precipice, and catches them by the skirts to hold them back, but allows himself meanwhile a line of commentary that hampers one's gratitude with reserves. He believes that the majority of the artists, poets, and novelists of the present day are mentally unsound, and develop (or exaggerate) a disease in the mind of the public that supports and appreciates them; and he refers to them collectively as "graphomaniacal fools, and their imbecile or unscrupulous bodyguard of critics." One thinks of Joubert's apothegm: *Il faut haïr et mépriser avec esprit.*

Herr Nordau grounds this extraordinary opinion on the newest of the sciences. Criminology, he says, has established two things: that insanity, vice, and crime are but varying degrees of the same thing, and that there are certain innocent and often unobtrusive traits that enable one to say beforehand of the person possessing them that he is of the criminal type. He examines the artistic output of the past two generations, and finds these premonitory symptoms in the works of Ruskin and the pre-Raphaelites, the Symbolists, Whitman, Tolstoi, Wagner, the Parnassians, the Æsthetes and Décadents, Ibsen, Nietzsche, Zola and the Realists, and we know not whom besides. He marshals them in review in a tone of boisterous exultation and abuse—much as if he had been a keeper in an asylum and had learned there to call a spade a spade. Walt Whitman is on one page "mad Walt Whitman," on another "crazy Walt Whitman." Ibsen is a "malignant anti social simpleton." "The pornographists" are "a filth-loving herd of swine." Ruskin's doctrines on art are "delirious," and their author is described as "raging and cursing." Idealist philosophers from Berkeley to Hegel are "solemn drivellers"; and so on. One paragraph, in which Herr Nordau has been parodying Maeterlinck, he closes with the remark that it is not "quite worthy of a mentally sound man to make fun of a poor devil of an idiot." We quite agree with him. And in another place (p. 318) he says that "he who has not learnt to impose some restraint upon himself in order not to shock others, is called by malicious Philistines not an æsthete but a blackguard." We should not choose this way of putting it, but we can see what he means.

This, however, is but manner and not to be insisted on. The book is described by its author as a bit of scientific criticism, and may claim to be judged as such. And here one thing must be said at once. Herr Nordau everywhere relies on the psychology which is not inaptly called morbid, as if it were a solid body of doctrine. It is not in a position to be dealt with in that way. Many facts, it is true, have been collected in its name, and some much-disputed generalizations have been made, but the science as a whole (whatever it may one day become) is as yet in the stage of absorbing light, not of giving it out. To read by it, as Herr Nordau everywhere does, would indicate a person who could have read without it. The only aid it could afford him is in the line of scattered observations. Whenever our author states a principle, it is to these he must be understood to refer. Very often he refers to them directly. He is perpetually quoting some report on lunatics and arguing from it as if it were a law of nature. He transcribes, for example, two strophes from Rossetti's "Troy Town," with its double refrain at the end of the first and fifth lines:

> "Heaven-born Helen, Sparta's Queen,
> (Oh, Troy Town!)
> Had two breasts of heavenly sheen,
> The sun and the moon of the heart's desire:
> All Love's lordship lay between.
> (Oh, Troy's down,
> Tall Troy's on fire!)"

His criticism is that the bracketed lines are not connected "in a rational way" with the rest of the verse, and that "Sollier remarks the peculiarity among persons of feeble intel-

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lect." He might have remarked it in a song at the end of "Twelfth Night," Shakspere's favorite play:

> "When that I was and a little tiny boy,
> With hey, ho, the wind and the rain,
> A foolish thing was but a toy,
> For the rain it raineth every day."

Herr Nordau continues to quote: "'Idiots,' he says, 'insert words which have absolutely no connection with their object.'" There is a certain difference between "no rational connection" and "absolutely no connection." And further on: "'Among idiots constant repetition grows into a veritable *tic!*'" It seems hardly necessary to say that because certain idiots do this, that, and the other thing—walk, for instance—it does not follow that all who walk are idiots. It will hardly be believed that the scientific staple of the book is of this grade.

More than this, it is not only assumed that whoever acts like an idiot must be an idiot, but whoever writes like an idiot or paints like an idiot must be one. This is rather the more doubtful assumption of the two, and it underlies the whole book. Indeed, the relation between the author and his work is everywhere regarded as one of perfect simplicity. If Rossetti wrote a foolish poem (we are giving our author's opinion, not our own), Rossetti is at once set down as foolish; if Wagner wrote a libidinous opera, he must have been libidinous. In a sense, of course, this is true, but it is always necessary for Herr Nordau's argument that it be the whole truth; he infers immediately from the work that the author had no other or better powers than it displays. It would seem that the inference ought to be precisely the reverse. Whether or not an author have worse powers than appear in his work, he may have better. He cannot work above himself, but he may to any extent work beneath. Whether he did so or not can be told only from an intimate acquaintance with his life; and, indeed, any information about him that is to be relied upon—that is worthy of the name of scientific, which Herr Nordau claims for himself—must come from that side. Every book and every picture are no doubt bits of autobiography, but they are bits out of the context of the life as a whole, and they do not tell their own tale. It is skating on thin ice to conclude as unsuspectingly as Herr Nordau does from the statue to the statuary, from the novelist to the novel. It is breaking through to conclude insanity—in especial, when the life as a whole (which in such a case is the only rule approaching safety to go by) refutes it. Tried by anything except their published works, the artists of the present day will not, we imagine, appear to be less sane than their predecessors.

Herr Nordau at least has given us no reason to believe the contrary, and it is strange that with the knowledge he possesses of his subject he should have tried to do so. A large part of the literature of morbid psychology is devoted to insanity and genius, and there is scarcely a man of any eminence, from Socrates to Goethe and Napoleon, to go no further, that has not been given, on one ground or another, a place in both categories. It is not supposable that Herr Nordau is not acquainted with this literature, or does not put faith in it; it is of quite as high a character as what he relies on, and much of it is by the same men. But if the bulk of the leaders of the people have at all times been a little unsound, why treat the present situation as unusual? The anomaly would be for the *fin-de-siècle* poets to be sane. Herr Nordau seems to have left this portion of his science in repose. He has made up for it by his diligence in other directions. He has traced the peculiarly shattered condition of the nervous systems of modern artists and men of letters to the railroad and telephone and the pressure of modern life. If the preceding remarks are at all correct, he has here explained a fact which there is reason to believe does not exist.

It is fair to add that this book as a whole is full of entertaining facts that are not accessible to the general reader. It is written with great learning, and with a certain hard, unimaginative good sense. The reader may expect to find in it some reference to almost anything, from Jericho roses and Macaulay's New Zealander to indurating sections of the spinal cord, and treating them with neutrophyllic solution. It rejoices in citation beyond most books we know, and informs us in an illustration that we are inhabited by staphilo-coccus and strepto-coccus; and discusses the nature of the ego and of Hegelian idealism in an aside. If it fails of its purpose, the reason must be found in large measure in Herr Nordau's genuine aversion to any but scientific literature. Of all the authors that he mentions there is not one, we believe, that he praises except for the immediate purpose of heaping up contempt on some one else. He describes with enthusiasm (p. 543 of the translation) a time in the not far distant future when observation will have completed her triumph over imaginative and artistic symbolism, and art and literature will be extinct, and regards all witticism (p. 65) as the flightiness of an enfeebled mind.

"'No witticism,' he says, with the best faith in the world, 'has ever made easier the discovery of any truth. And whoever has tried to hold a serious conversation with a quibbling person of weak mind will have recognized the impossibility of keeping him in check, of getting from him a logical conclusion, or of making him comprehend a fact or a causal connection. When presentations are connected, not merely according to auditory impressions of simple similarity of sound, but also according to the other laws of association, those juxtapositions of words are effected which the ignorant designate as 'original modes of expression,' and which confer upon their originator the reputation of a 'brilliant' conversationalist or author."

Then comes his invariable appeal to the idiots. "Sollier cites some characteristic examples of the 'original' modes of expression of imbeciles. One said to his comrade, 'You look like a piece of barley sugar put out to nurse.'"

The translator deserves great credit for his faithfulness in rendering the spirit of his author. The case was one of peculiar difficulty; the temptation must have been constant to soften down Herr Nordau's too exuberant phrase. As for faithfulness in the less important sense—the rendering of word for word—we have noticed no errors, but have not collated the translation with any large portion of the German text.

MYCENÆAN ART.

History of Art in Primitive Greece: Mycenian Art. From the French of Georges Perrot and Charles Chipiez. In two volumes. 8vo. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Co.

At last the monumental work of MM. Perrot and Chipiez has reached the shores of Greece, and begun the study of its antiquities with the same exhaustiveness which has characterized their description of the arts of the older, Oriental nations. In their introduction to the book before us, they announce that three volumes of the French edition will be devoted to Greek art; which means six of the English translation. Surely it is both a courageous and a patient scholar who is willing to undertake a work upon this scale in the present rapidly developing state of our knowledge, when so much still remains to be learned, and we have in prospect the danger, if not the certainty, that the archæologists of the next generation will, with new materials, upset many of the favorite theories of this. Classical archæology is to-day probably the least exact of all the sciences. We have heard it defined as "the science of upsetting theories," and not undeservedly, since its knowledge has not yet outgrown the experimental stage. Much of what it accepts at present rests upon very flimsy foundations; and although its followers are constantly endeavoring to replace the weak materials by stronger ones, it is far from having attained its final structure yet.

The mere fact that Furtwängler, in his 'Masterpieces,' which was recently reviewed in these columns, has been able to show that there is another possible side to so many of the theories which have long been cherished as established, proves how far we are from the last word on the history of Greek art, and therefore how impossible it is that any book which aims to cover the whole subject should be of permanent value, at least so far as its conclusions are concerned. Indeed, Perrot and Chipiez's work itself offers proof of what we are saying; for, having been written before Dörpfeld's famous excavations at Troy in 1893, the bulk of what it says on the Trojan question is already antiquated, and this forms no inconsiderable portion of the book. We doubt, therefore, whether the time has come for such a work as the authors desire theirs to be, though none the less must we commend the thoroughness and diligence which have been brought to the task, and especially to M. Perrot's portion of it.

The volume on primitive Greece is arranged in the manner which is familiar to those who know the earlier volumes of the 'Histoire de l'Art dans l'Antiquité.' It begins with a long essay upon the country and the people, with their history down to the Doric invasion; after which follows what little there is to tell about the stone age in Greece. Then comes a detailed account of the remains of each of the centres of prehistoric civilization, such as Thera, Troy, Tiryns, Mycenæ, and the less important sites where tombs of that epoch have been found; and these in turn are followed by chapters on the architecture, sculpture, painting, and industrial arts of primitive Greece, with a summary of conclusions at the end. The illustrations are as numerous as in the earlier volumes of the series, and are, as a rule, of the same high quality.

While admiring the comprehensive character of M. Perrot's scholarship, and the suggestive manner in which he treats every subject that he discusses, it seems to us that the defects of the method upon which the History of Art has been planned become more apparent, and we had almost said more irksome, as it approaches familiar ground. Of the majority of the countries thus far included in the series, this has been the only complete and satisfactory manual we possessed, and whatever the authors were willing to give us was welcome; but with Greece the case is different, and we think it would have been wiser to assume that their readers either knew something of the subject or had easy access to such knowledge, unless the authors wished to put forth new theories regarding the topics described. This we do not find to have been done to any

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extent, and, as a result, the present book suffers greatly from an appearance of padding. The introductory chapters, for example, tell nothing that has not already been told in a masterly style by Curtius, and in much less space. Indeed, they seem hardly more than an expansion of Curtius's description, with phrases substituted for words, at a corresponding loss of terseness and vividness. And of what use is it nowadays to go into a minute discussion of Lechevalier's theory of Burnabashi as the site of Troy? Yet, in the translation, twenty-five pages are occupied in controverting this and other theories, with a view to proving Hissarlik the most probable site; and after them ten more are devoted to Bötticher's hypothesis of the "Fire necropolis," only to show what most people who have looked into the subject already believe, namely, that it is not worth discussing. In the same way, lengthy descriptions are given to Tiryns, Mycenæ, and Troy, the greater part of which are rendered superfluous by the writings of Schliemann, Dörpfeld, and Schuchhardt, which are translated into both French and English, and to which we do not find that Perrot adds anything new. The need of filling a bulky volume on the first epoch of Greek art seems to have overbalanced all other considerations in the author's mind, and to have been the cause of introducing much matter which the reviewer, at least, would gladly have been spared. As to the general reader, he is fortunately not obliged to take more than he desires, and of this he will find enough to make the book well worth having.

As in the earlier volumes, we believe it is the second half of the book which will be found most interesting and serviceable. This is the first time that a full and comprehensive account of the "Island gems" has appeared in English, and both the description itself and the abundant illustrations accompanying it will make the book especially valuable to students who are seeking knowledge of this most interesting class of prehistoric antiquities. The same is true of the section on pottery, where the different styles of early Greek vases are brought together in a manner which makes a comparison of their points of resemblance and difference easy of comprehension. Although the materials for this study exist, in English, in the works of the writers we have referred to, and a few others, this is the first time they have been brought together in one book with equal fulness. The remains of the other industrial arts are described and illustrated no less satisfactorily, while the utmost possible is made of the scanty remnants of the sculpture of the period, even to the extent of including small terracotta idols, gold masks, reliefs on cups, and other objects which we should have expected to find classified among the smaller arts.

The fertile imagination of M. Chipiez has not the same opportunity it has had in some other volumes of the series, but full advantage has been taken of what there is, and as a result we have restorations of the "tomb of Atreus," both within and without, of the general aspects of Mycenæ and Tiryns, and of a Mycenæan palace, all of which would doubtless have surprised the contemporaries of Agamemnon quite as much as they do us. In his ability to make something out of nothing, and to carry restoration of details far beyond the reach of extant data, Canina is the only rival who has ever approached M. Perrot's collaborator. We must not omit mention of a chapter on the origin of Doric architecture, in which a new theory is put forward, based upon a resemblance which M. Chipiez finds between the fragments of an alabaster decoration from Tiryns, and the later combination of triglyphs and metopes on the Doric frieze. In this chapter no mention is made of Dörpfeld's masterly essay on the same subject, which the new theory is not likely to replace.

As to the translation, we find it difficult to speak without impatience of the ignorant, slovenly, and incompetent manner in which it has been done, contrasting most discreditably with the excellent work of Mr. Walter Armstrong in the earlier volumes. Even the cheap French novels, which are rushed through the press to outdo competing translators, receive better treatment, although in the present book the evidence points not so much to haste as to absolute inability to grapple with the English language, to say nothing of the translator's archæological qualifications. His familiarity with classical literature may be inferred from his spelling of classical names, such as that of Achilles, who appears consistently throughout the book as "Achylles"—except where he is referred to as "Peleide"—Eurymedon, who becomes "Euremedon," Dionysius of Halicarnassos, who retains his French name of "Denys"; or, to turn to geography, "Cape Tenerus," and "Phalarus," which it is hard to believe was meant for Phaleron. He has, moreover, an unaccountable predilection for the diphthong "æ," which turns up in the most unexpected places, and gives us "Rhætium" for Rhoeteum, "Præteus" for Proetus, "Træzen" for Troezene, "Alphæus," "Phenæus," and even "Ælis" (Elis), to select only a few of the many examples of its misuse. In cases where he might properly have used it, however, he frequently neglects his opportunity; and thus, instead of "Mycenæan" we have "Mycenian," both in the title and wherever else the word occurs. Hellas, in his hands, becomes easily a plural noun where occasion requires, as—"by her side were other Hellas" (i. 23), or "between these several Hellas" (i. 24); and we read that "the Thermopylæ were chosen as a meeting-place" (i. 97).

But the peculiarities of the translator are by no means confined to his classical knowledge. His use of plain, every-day English is no less extraordinary, and consequently we read of "the first essayals" of Greek artists; of a "retrocession in the march of progress"; of the hearth as "the ombilic, as it was styled by poets"; of places where "contacts productive of inestimable good had their being"; of earthenware which was not "cast on the wheel"; of "the Mycenian architect, like he of Orchomenos"; of designs "traced by an otiose graver"; and of the "more or less short handles or ears [of vases] which facilitated prehension." These are but a few flowers taken from a garden. Sometimes, in spite of them, the translation runs along with comparative smoothness for a few pages, until we suddenly find ourselves brought up with a sentence like this: "The most distinctive and essential peculiarity of the Greek nation, we may boldly affirm without seeming to ignore what has been attempted by others in this department, the action of all others more especially Hellas' own in forwarding ancient culture, is the foundation, the creation of the township or city" (p. 37). In the more technical portions of the book, and particularly in the chapters on architecture, the incompetency of the translator is most exasperating, as here he becomes almost unintelligible. His constant confusion of the words dome and cupola, and his use of "lining" where he means "facing," are characteristic examples. He speaks of the "stucco lining" of a gravestone, and the "lining" of an architrave, where he means the slab which covered it. The word projection does not seem to exist in his vocabulary, "salience" being his constant substitute for it. Thus a beam or moulding which projects heavily has a "strong salience," and a slight projection is interpreted as a "feeble salience." The effort of reading these chapters is increased by the fact that the etched plates are not numbered, although they are always referred to by numbers in the text; and the citations in the footnotes throughout the book are of the vaguest kind. References such as "Curtius, Hist. of Greece," or "Corpus Inscript. Græc.," without volume, page, or number, are not likely to be of much service to the reader.

In allowing a translation like this to leave their press, the publishers have treated both authors and readers with equal discourtesy. The high price of the book ought to be a guarantee of the best kind of work, and the class of readers for whom it is intended have a right to expect this; but such hack-work as has been applied to these two volumes, if continued through those which are to follow, will very seriously impair the value of what will undoubtedly be the most complete history of Greek art of our generation. To borrow a favorite phrase of the translator, "hence is explained why" we have dwelt upon its shortcomings with more detail than usual.

Half a Century with Judges and Lawyers. By Joseph A. Willard, Clerk of the Superior Court of Massachusetts. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

Half a century is a long stretch, but Mr. Willard's recollections go even further back, for he remembers Lafayette's visit to Cambridge in 1824. At that time he went to a school taught by Ralph Waldo Emerson, among others, and listened to the preaching of President Kirkland, Dr. Ware, and Rev. Abiel Holmes. Commencement day at Cambridge was then more democratic in its celebration than now, the streets being lined on both sides with candy-stands, and gambling, dice, and roulette-tables, while on the Common there were booths where fiddling and dancing went on, and learned horses and pigs were exhibited. The gamblers and roughs came out from Boston and fought and rioted for three days; but, lest we should boast of our superior refinement of manners, Mr. Willard adds that, "though football was played on the college grounds, there was no slugging and no broken limbs."

When he was a boy, Mr. Willard often went shooting in the Stoneham woods, never returning without half-a-dozen woodcock and as many partridges. Wild pigeons were so numerous around Cambridge that they were caught by hundreds with nets upon the marshes. Twice a day there was a stage between Cambridge and Boston, the fare being 25 cents, and Mr. Willard appears to have been on friendly terms with many stage-drivers, and to have early displayed a fondness for horses which he has always retained. He was fitted for Harvard, but, instead of entering, went to sea, and followed it for a number of years. He thinks Mr. Dana's 'Two Years Before the Mast' a little over-colored, for he made voyages up the Mediterranean and to the East Indies, and the crews in both instances were composed, with one exception, of members of good American families. With the exception of this foreigner every one of these sailors was a man of some education, and per-

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fectly competent to navigate a ship to any part of the globe.

Mr. Willard's connection with the courts began in 1846, and has been continuous. By his birth he was placed upon an equality with the better class of practitioners at the bar, and by his capacity and fidelity to his duties he won general esteem. He has something to tell of nearly all the judges and lawyers of note in Boston for the last half-century, and something, too, of many of the humbler members of the bar. Some of his stories are old, and many of them are rather pointless, but not more than enough to make a pleasant neutral background for those that are really good. They are loosely strung together upon a slender historical thread, the constitution of the courts and the changes in their personnel being from time to time noted.

We quote in a random way a few of these anecdotes. Of Judge Shaw Mr. Webster said: "He can do the work of ten men, and at night eat ham enough to raise the market price in Cincinnati." He was rather terrible upon the bench, and his wit was not suggestive of the rapier. To a lawyer who had forgotten that he was retained in a case that was called, and who said that he really knew nothing about it, the Chief Justice replied: "I didn't suppose you knew anything about the case; I only asked you what you would have done with it." Judge Wilde had a lighter touch. He was trying a case when an attorney used some recondite word, and the judge said: "What is that word? I haven't heard it before." Counsel: "Please, your Honor, Mr. Webster has got out a new dictionary with ten thousand new words in it." Judge Wilde: "Mercy on us! I hope Choate won't get hold of it."

Of a certain judicial appointment which was offered, but declined, a nameless judge rather neatly said that better judgment was displayed by him who refused than by the one who made the offer. The late Sidney Bartlett was trying a case not long ago, in which the principal witness against him was a man sixty years old. In his closing argument Mr. Bartlett said: "I think your Honor should take Mr. B.'s testimony with some grains of allowance, as his memory seems to be affected by the inherent weakness of old age." Mr. Bartlett was then eighty-eight years of age. The late John S. Holmes is credited with some sharp sayings concerning judges. Being told upon the death of one of them that it was proposed to erect a monument to him, he observed that it ought to be a bas-relief. Speaking of candidates for a vacant seat on the Superior bench, he said that Judge —— ought to have it, as he had such an eminently judicial gait. Another judge was holding court, and the sun shone upon the back of his head. Holmes whispered to the clerk: "A beautiful illustration of Scripture—the light shineth upon the darkness and the darkness comprehendeth it not."

We could go on indefinitely with our quotations, but it would be hardly fair to Mr. Willard, and we will close our notice by repeating a very pretty compliment which was paid him in such a way as to justify him in including it in his repertory. Mr. George A. Torrey, in closing a case for the defendant, said:

"Now, gentlemen of the jury, you see that this writ is signed by my friend Mr. Willard, the clerk of this court. The *ad damnum*, as we call it, the amount claimed in this writ, is $5,000. There is a legend in this court-house that the jurors think Mr. Willard would not sign a paper summoning a defendant into court to answer unless he knew the plaintiff to be a respectable man and entitled to recover the amount sued for, and that Mr. Willard actually wants the plaintiff to recover what he asks. Now I wish to disabuse your minds of this. Mr. Willard signs all those writs, and we lawyers, when we issue one, put in what amount we choose, and Mr. Willard knows nothing of it."

Would that the clerks of all our courts might have characters that would make such legends concerning them credible.

A Book of Elizabethan Lyrics. Selected and edited by Felix E. Schelling, Professor of English in the University of Pennsylvania. [The Athenæum Press Series.] Boston: Ginn & Co.

Prof. Schelling's anthology of Elizabethan lyrics is made with excellent taste. The word Elizabethan, as was fitting, is construed in a broad sense, so as to include the half-century from the publication of 'The Paradise of Dainty Devises' (1576) to the death of Fletcher (1625). The word "lyric," too, has been liberally interpreted, but we find very little in the collection which could have been omitted without loss. Even "Farewell, ye gilded follies," doubtfully ascribed to Raleigh, who has fathered so many *adespota*, is in so characteristic an Elizabethan mood that it was certainly better to admit it by stretching the term "lyric" a little than to mutilate the volume by leaving it out. A great majority of the selections, however, are lyrical in the strictest acceptation. The great Elizabethans are amply represented, and, at the same time, much pains has apparently been taken to give due prominence to the lesser singers of the great song-writing age. The volumes of Bell, Bullen, and others have been of material assistance in this direction; but Prof. Schelling's collection is by no means a repetition of the work of any of his predecessors. It covers more ground, and has been prepared with greater care and a severer literary discrimination.

The texts are interpreted and illustrated by a body of scholarly notes. These, summing up as they do the results arrived at by former editors, and adding a great deal that is quite new, not only furnish everything that the student and the reader for pleasure can need, but will have to be consulted by all future investigators in this department of our literature. They are fully indexed, and there are also indexes of first lines and of authors and editors. The Introduction to the volume consists of two chapters, "The Elizabethan Lyric" and "Elizabethan Lyrical Measures," both well done. Prof. Schelling's monograph on Elizabethan verse-criticism, which appeared some years ago in the Publications of the University of Pennsylvania, may be read in connection with the second chapter. The Introduction is a welcome addition to the materials available for the critical and scientific study of English literature and English versification. The whole volume is creditable alike to the editor and to the series to which it belongs. Fully meeting the exigencies of the student, it is so arranged as at the same time to answer all the purposes of those readers who are in quest of intellectual enjoyment and find scholarly apparatus a bore.

Recollections of a Military Life. By General Sir John Adye, G.C.B., R.A. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. 382, with maps and illustrations.

This very attractive book gives an excellent means of comparing the life of a British officer with the experience of those who serve in other armies. No other military men in the world have so varied a career as English soldiers. This is well shown in General Adye's case. After a long and weary service in subaltern positions during the "long peace," he was assigned to duty in the military staff at Lord Raglan's headquarters at the beginning of the Crimean war. His personal narrative of that time is an excellent check on Kinglake's History, and gives many incidents, grave and gay, which lend life to the story of the siege of Sebastopol. Peace with Russia being made, he was sent to India and served both in the tropical southern region of Madras and in a lively mountain campaign on the Afghan border in the north. He has been successful in giving characteristic features of this service and an intelligent discussion of the Indian problem from his point of view. Returning home, he had a tour of duty at the Woolwich Artillery School and as Director of Artillery at the War Office, where he worked under Mr. Cardwell, then Minister for War, in the reformed organization of the army and its administration. After this, the troubles in Egypt arose, and he was sent out as chief of staff in General Wolseley's army.

Intellectually alert and physically active, General Adye profited by these opportunities to form opinions and to gather the fruits of experience, so that his comments on events and his discussions of policies are alike valuable. His style is plain and clear, without assumption or dogmatism, and we follow him sympathetically, finding him an instructive and persuasive guide in the history of affairs in which he played an important part.

He is a draughtsman of no mean ability, and his sketches in India ink are attractive illustrations of his story. Some of them, like the drawing of Lord Raglan's headquarters on the Chersonese, are of real historical interest; and others, like the outpost in Bootan, with the Himalayas in the background, have artistic merit. The book is altogether a welcome addition to the list of English works on military subjects.

Czar and Sultan. By Archibald Forbes. Scribners. 1894.

It is a pity that Mr. Archibald Forbes has chosen the above catch-penny and misleading title for his interesting book. The Sultan does not appear in it at all, the Czar in only two or three rather striking, if melodramatic scenes. The work is supposed to be the tale told to his nephews by a Scotchman who served in his youth as an assistant correspondent during the Russo-Turkish war. It is drawn largely from the writer's own exciting experiences, as well as from the accounts written at the time by himself and his friends of what they heard and witnessed. We are not quite sure whether it is meant for boys or not. If not, we could dispense with the pretence of a story with an introduction in the style of 'Lorna Doone,' and occasional little digressions into the family matters of the hero. On the other hand, thrilling as many pages are, others are over the head of the youthful reader. The geographical and strategical descriptions are by no means simple, and the whole book can be thoroughly appreciated only by one familiar with the general course of the war, likewise with the chief characters that took part in it.

Still, for both young and old lovers of battle-scenes, 'Czar and Sultan' contains much that is of interest. From first to last we feel the pleasure of a work whose author knows what he is describing and knows how to describe it. Scenes and characters stand out vividly before us. Again and again we are made to realize

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what the war meant, the heroism of the Russian soldiers, the fearful and frequently unnecessary sufferings and privations they underwent, the incapacity of many of their leaders, the splendid fighting qualities of the Turks, etc., etc. It is hard to choose which one prefers from the numerous excellent passages. The one on page 68, too long to be quoted, conveys a most vivid impression of combat. The account of the September battle of Plevna is also a fine piece of writing, though not equal to MacGahan's description of the same events published in the *Daily News* correspondence, and from which an extract is taken. Mr. Forbes gives us frequent glimpses of Skobeleff, and some sort of an insight into the brilliant, if wayward, genius of the man, and the causes of his extraordinary success. Here is a sketch of him at first meeting:

"I thought then as a lad, as I have never ceased to think, that I never looked on a grander man. Over six feet in height, straight as a pine, the head carried high with a frank gallant fearlessness, square across the broad shoulders, deep in the chest, slender of waist, clean of flank, the muscular, graceful, supple figure set off to perfection by the white frock coat with the decorations and gold lace on it, Skobeleff, with his chivalrous bearing, looked a genial king of men. . . . No wonder that soldiers, friends, and women loved him! It was impossible to know him, to have him smile on you with that sweet, grave smile of his, and not to love him" (p. 16).

The portrait of Osman Pasha is less flattering and in contradiction to the opinion of his Russian captors:

"The officers of the staff of the Grand Duke Nicholas professed themselves struck with the power, energy, and determination disclosed in the features of Osman. 'It is a grand face; it more than fulfils my ideal of the man!' was the comment of Col. Gaillard, the French military attaché. Skobeleff was not less enthusiastic. 'It is the face,' he exclaimed, 'of a great soldier!' They may have been right. For my part, in Osman's lowering brow and heavy jowl I could discern no other expression than that of stolid, dogged resolution. To me there was no evidence of high intellect in the coarse, sullen features. It is true that there was a certain pathos in the dark, liquid eye, but as a whole I saw nothing distinctive in Osman's aspect. He was simply a Turk of the old unregenerate stamp—brave, merciless, and brutal, the type familiar to any who knows the Turkish race. He was a large-framed, thickset man, apparently of middle age—there was no streak of gray in the short thick black beard which covered the lower part of his face and but partly hid the thick sensual lips" (pp. 277-278).

There are many other passages which we should like to quote, and pages which could bear being repeated *in extenso*. They make the work well worth reading, even if the general effect is rather scrappy. The volume closes with a fine tribute to MacGahan.

Un Siècle de Modes Féminines. 1794–1894. Paris: G. Charpentier & E. Fasquelle.

Costume of Colonial Times. By Alice Morse Earle. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE first of these two books is entertaining on account of an undeniable prettiness and vivacity which could have been imparted to it only in the vivacious capital from which it comes. It is impossible, nevertheless, in the literal sense of the word, to commend it to the notice of the gentle reader. For once in a way that highly apostrophized person, strictly considered as such, has been left out of account in the composition of a volume. A date, it is true, is here to be read at the foot of each florid page, but otherwise there exists not a vestige of the sort of printed matter that would ordinarily fill it. Instead, one, two, or several, as the case may be, lay feminine figures flaunt their costumes—or their partial lack of costumes, as the case may also be—on two hundred shiny cream-white surfaces, gay with the flounces and furbelows that the brief editors' preface announces in italics as printed exclusively "en couleurs." The impression that these pretty insipidities in crude polychrome will make on the beholder's eye is very much a question of the state of the beholder's mind. An unqualified admirer of the female sex—for a few such still survive—may very well wonder why, when women can make themselves as charming as they here occasionally appear in effigy, they should yet be perverse enough to disfigure themselves as they are oftener here also shown to do; while their stern censors, who are busy planting and watering reforms in this generation that the next may reap the increase, will easily find, on one page or another, texts ready made to their hands. A neutral observer could hardly put the volume to a better use than to let it serve as illustration to the probable and approximate garb of any of his favorite heroines of romance who may happen to have lived between the years 1794 and 1894. Whatever the point of view, however, from which it may be regarded, serious consideration need hardly be given it.

The other of the books named leans to the view—usually rejected by kindred volumes—that the apparel oft proclaims the man. If lovely woman has sometimes stooped to folly in the matter of clothes, she has had, in the past, a rival who has once in a while outstripped her in her excess of care for personal appearance. Much of the interest of Mrs. Earle's pages depends, in fact, upon the comparatively novel connection in which they present, gravely and seriously in their turn, names familiar in the grave and serious annals of the time they treat of. Even a judge, a governor, or a father of his country may unconsciously disclose some traits of elemental human nature in making his will, or in writing out an order for his tailor or his London haberdasher; and it is upon documents such as these, together with eighteenth-century newspapers and court records, that Mrs. Earle has drawn for her material. There are, accordingly, scattered through her pages, bits of familiar biography or glimpses of intimate domesticity wherewith to eke out personal acquaintance with colonial worthies, though such acquaintance, it should be noted, would have been greatly facilitated to any reader coveting it by the addition of an index of proper names.

The exact nature of the volume might with advantage, moreover, have been more clearly explained in the title. Upon examination its contents prove to be in the unsuspected form of a glossary. Forty pages are devoted to a "history" of colonial dress, while the remaining two hundred offer no consecutive reading longer than the six pages given to "wig," or the four or five given to "ring," "lace," or "hat." But the references provided are ample and interesting, and the definitions probably as complete as the vague and shifting nature of the material would permit. A verbal antiquarian might easily find additions to his store of curios in such terms as "liripipes," "orrice," "samare," or "sagathy"; and, as is suggested by the "foreword," portrayers of old colonial days, "not only in colors but in words," may be saved from anachronisms by consultation with a glossary such as this. Its transitions of subject need prove no obstacle even to continuous perusal with the class of persons of lively intellect who are able to find profitable and interesting reading in a page of the dictionary.

Europe, 1598–1715. By Henry Offley Wakeman, M.A., Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford. [Periods of European History.] Macmillan.

IN this volume Mr. Wakeman has provided not so much a history of the period as a running comment upon its main events and leading characters, presupposing the reader to possess already a fair knowledge of the facts. The style is vivacious and often polished, yet the excessive personification of nations and the tendency to epigram make its brilliancy at times seem too artificial. The most serious criticism we have to make on the book is its restriction to the field of international politics and dynastic rivalries; for, apart from the excellent brief sketch of the counter-Reformation and a page here and there on national finance, no attention is paid to the intellectual movements, industrial changes, and the development of commerce, or, at best, only enough to betray the limitations of the author's reading. For example: the *assiento* of the peace of Utrecht, as is well known, gave England the monopoly of supplying the Spanish-American colonies with negro slaves. Mr. Wakeman takes nearly twice as many words to explain it, and then leaves out the essential facts which to-day give color and interest to the transaction. He describes it "as the right to trade, under strict limitations, with certain towns in Spanish waters set apart for the purpose." This does not specify whether the towns were in Spain or America. The fact, as he states it, is of no more value to the modern student than any stray fragment of statistics. It is destitute of historical interest. The fact that has historical interest is that a breach was forced in the wall of Spanish colonial monopoly, and that not two centuries ago the exclusive right of supplying the Spanish colonies with slaves was secured by England as a diplomatic triumph, and with none of the moral reprobation which would have been visited upon it at any time during the last century. Mr. Wakeman has evidently paid no attention to the colonial interests of Europe, for he declares that, by the English Navigation Act of 1651, "the policy was first enunciated which was to govern the relations of the great maritime powers to their colonies for a century and a half—the policy, namely, which regarded colonies as mere feeders to the mother country" (p. 226).

When Mr. Wakeman states that the Pope's influence in the international politics of Europe ceased in 1648, the utterance is to be explained probably as an exaggeration; but what is to be said of the assertion on p. 2, that "the principal States of Europe at the present time are in all essentials absolute monarchies, and these monarchies are as absolute now as they were then [*i. e.*, 1789], with the two exceptions of Italy, which did not then exist, and France, which is now a republic, but has been everything in turn and nothing long"? We have, perhaps, given the defects of Mr. Wakeman's book undue prominence. Its literary merits will undoubtedly secure it an extensive reading; but as he has chosen to construct his work on old-fashioned conventional lines, and largely to ignore those phases of history which seem of especial importance to students to-day, it is inevitable that he should fail to interest them to the extent which might be expected from his powers as a writer.

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Molluscs. By the Rev. A. H. Cooke; Brachiopods (Recent) by A. E. Shipley; Brachiopods (Fossil) by F. R. C. Reed. [The Cambridge Natural History, Vol. III.] Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. xiv, 535, illustrated.

FROM popular series of works on natural history, which have so greatly multiplied of late years, expert readers have mostly ceased to expect anything more than a fair approximation to the usual principles of classification and a readable summary of facts long known to specialists. It is, therefore, an agreeable surprise to find in the present volume an account of the mollusks exhibiting real freshness and even some originality of treatment, and marked by a distinct endeavor to gather the most recent data. It is true that the work is done in the main on the old lines, and makes no pretensions to be a manual for experts, but Mr. Cooke has industriously gleaned from many sources the more recent additions to our knowledge of the habits and anatomy of mollusks, and has succeeded in preparing an account which offers to his readers a full and interesting description of all that most of them are likely to wish for in a work of this character. It would be easy to find points of detail affording opportunities for criticism, but, on the whole, the work has been well done. The geographical matters, in which English works are especially likely to show weakness, seem exceptionally accurate, though the author does canonize old Juan de Fuca without the assistance of the Church. Recent publications on the development of the brachiopods have made such a long step in advance that it is not surprising to find the classification of these animals adopted by Mr. Reed somewhat behind the times. There seems no good reason for separating the treatment of this group into two parts, recent and fossil, since, biologically, no line can be drawn between them. However, the more important facts known in regard to the embryology and anatomy of these animals are well stated by Mr. Shipley, and his general conclusions as to their relations are sensible and just.

The systematic part of both monographs suffers from the necessity of condensation and the endeavor to apply to general classification principles founded in some instances on a too slender morphological basis. But this is a defect which only time and more extended researches will enable naturalists to correct. For the present, the compilers have given us a very readable work, very nearly up to date, and it will doubtless have a wide and extended usefulness. The illustrations, though not especially well done, are largely new and original, and the book has an excellent index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abrams, Albert. Transactions of the Antiseptic Club. E. B. Treat. $1.75.
Boissier, Gaston. L'Afrique Romaine: Promenades Archéologiques en Algérie et en Tunisie. Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Compton, Herbert. A Free Lance in a Far Land. Cassell. $1.
Dane, Daniel. Is She Not a Woman? Cassell. 50 cents.
Daudet, Alphonse. Fromont Junior and Risler Senior. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Everest, Rev. W. F. The Gift of the Keys, and Other Essays. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Forrest, Mrs. Dearest. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Garnett, Prof. J. M. Hayne's Speech. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
Hertza, Theodor. Entrückt in die Zukunft: Social-politischer Roman. Berlin: F. Dümmler: New York: Westermann.
Lavisse, Prof. Ernest, and Rambaud, Prof. Alfred. Histoire Générale, du IVe Siècle à nos jours. Tome V. Les Guerres de Religion. 1559-1648. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Meade, Mrs. L. T. Out of the Fashion. Cassell. 50 cents.
Miles, A. H. One Thousand and One Anecdotes. Whittaker. $1.50.
Optic, Oliver. In the Saddle. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Patterson, C. B. Beyond the Clouds. The Author. $1.
Patterson, Capt. Howard. Naval Dictionary. New York Nautical College. $1.
Romanes, G. J. Thoughts on Religion. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Russell, W. H. The Great War with Russia. George Routledge & Sons.
Rutherfurd, Livingston. Family Records and Events. Dodd, Mead & Co. $12.
Sardou, Victorien. Gismonda. Street & Smith. 25 cents.
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